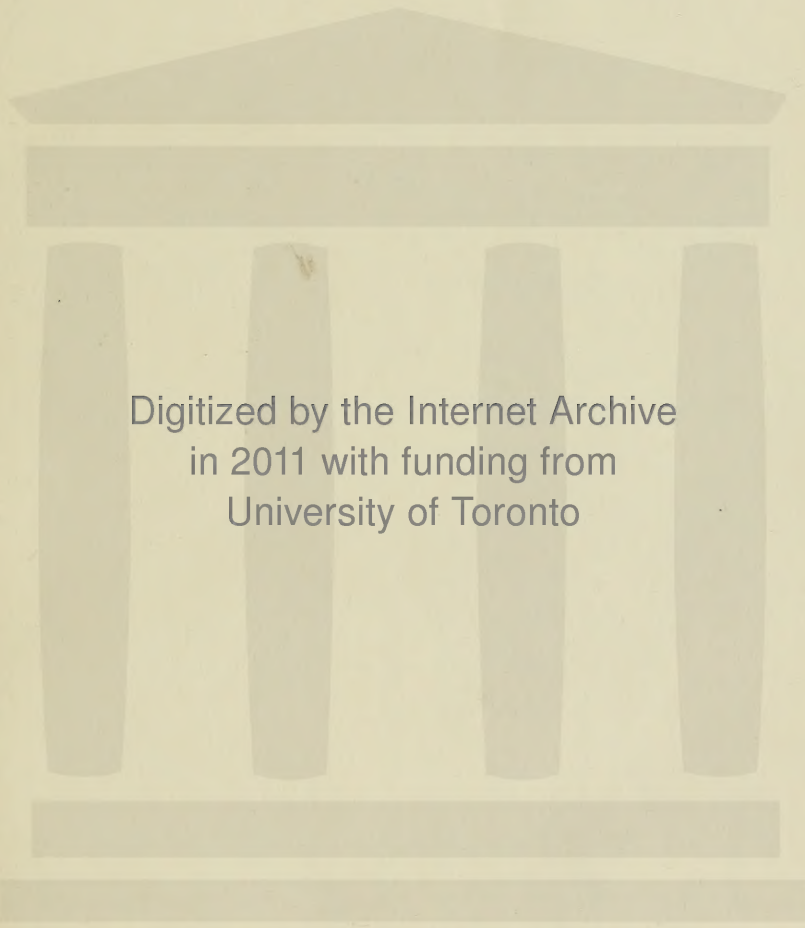
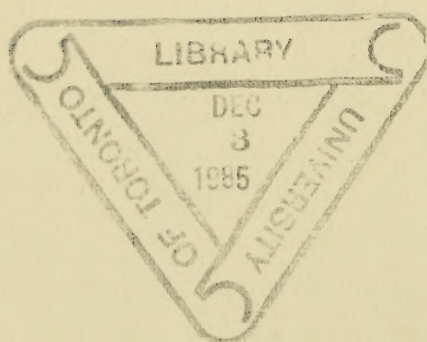




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THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

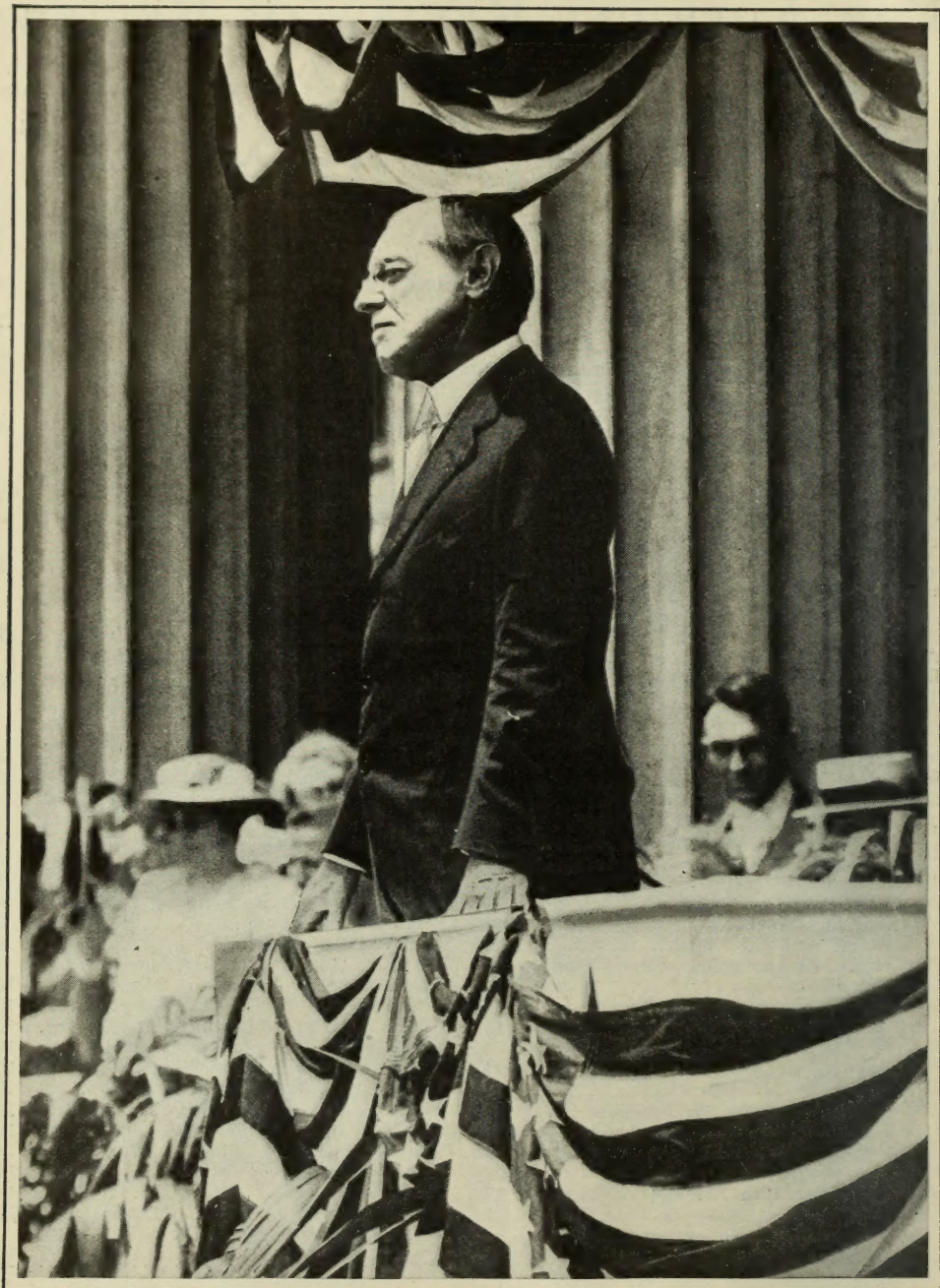
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TERMS:—Issued monthly, 25 cents a number, \$3.00 a year in advance in the United States, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Cuba, Canada, Mexico, and the Philippines. Elsewhere, \$4.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second class matter under Act of Congress, March 3, 1879. Entered as Second Class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English REVIEW OF REVIEWS, which is edited and published in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 30 Irving Place, New York

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



PRESIDENT WILSON, MAKING HIS FLAG DAY ADDRESS AT WASHINGTON ON JUNE 14, FROM THE SOUTH PORTICO OF THE TREASURY BUILDING

"For me the flag does not express a mere body of vague sentiments. The flag of the United States has not been created by rhetorical sentences in declarations of independence and in bills of rights; it has been created by the experience of a great people, and nothing is written upon it that has not been written upon it by their life. It is the embodiment not of a sentiment but of history, and no man can rightly serve under that flag who has not caught some of the meaning of that history." (From the President's address.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LII

NEW YORK, JULY, 1915

No. 1

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

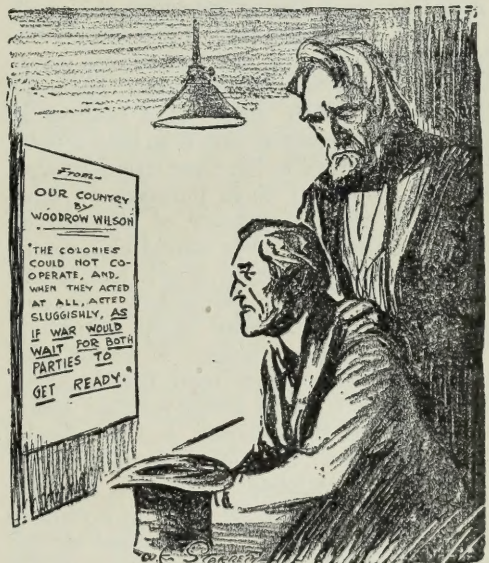
*Peace and
Defense*

June, 1915, will be written down in the world's annals as a month of deep emotion, terrific struggle, profound social undercurrents as well as notable surface events. In our own country there was a nearer sense of the value of peace and the sickening horror of war. There has been a reaction from the devilry of jingoism, and a renewed disposition to try to bring the neutral sentiment of the world together in an effort to save Europe from its madness. There is an increasing belief in the doctrine that Americans, as individuals and as a nation, should be capable of acting in self-defense. This principle being admitted, it remains for those of ripe wisdom and experience to decide by what means we should be prepared. National self-defense a hundred years ago could be expressed in terms of squirrel rifles and powder horns. To-day the conditions demand a different kind of provision. Elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW, Professor Vincent, of the Johns Hopkins University, writes of Switzerland and her problems as a neutral. At this moment she is completely surrounded by warring nations, and if she were not strongly armed and capable of self-defense it is morally certain that the strategy of one commander or another would involve the violation of Swiss territory.

*Training
Young Citizens*

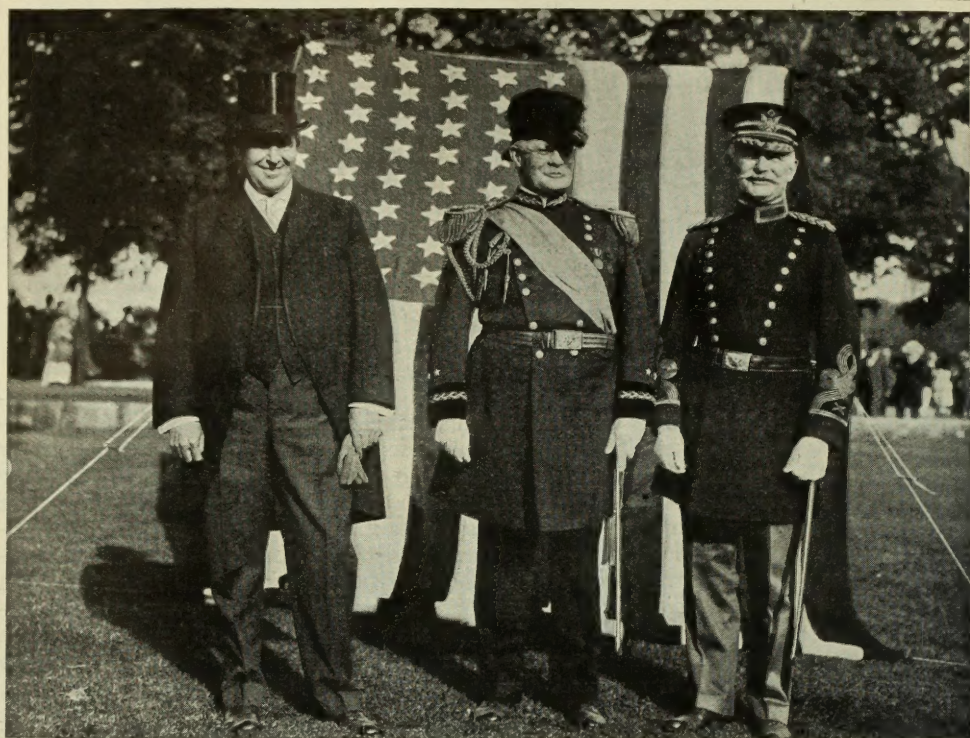
The Swiss are not warlike; they are simply determined to defend their right to live peaceably and securely in their highlands. Professor Vincent tells how the Swiss boys are all trained to serve if needed in defense of their country. There are some of us who give time and effort to what are called "peace movements," and who look forward with hope and faith to world federation, international naval police, and European disarmament; and yet we believe that every American boy ought to be

trained for the all-around duties of citizenship, including service as soldiers in the country's defense. The Constitution clearly looks to such readiness on the part of the citizen, and for that reason declares that Congress may provide for calling forth citizens to serve as militiamen to quell insurrection or repel invasion; and, to enable them thus to serve the country, there is guaranteed the right to keep and bear arms. Since every young man is liable under the law to be called upon to perform military duty, why should he not be so trained as to be fit to perform such service well? Every sheriff or peace officer has a right to call upon citizens to rally for forcible action in emergencies. Fitness to serve well at such times should be considered in the training of every boy for civic responsibility.



UNCLE SAM (to President Wilson): "Why not read that to Congress?"

From the Tribune (New York)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

HON. LINDLEY M. GARRISON (SECRETARY OF WAR), MAJOR-GENERAL HUGH L. SCOTT (CHIEF OF STAFF) AND COLONEL TOWNSLEY (SUPERINTENDENT OF WEST POINT MILITARY ACADEMY) WATCHING THE PARADE OF CADETS AT THE GRADUATION EXERCISES LAST MONTH

*Navies
for Defense
Purposes*

A hundred years ago we had a vast fleet of merchant ships sailing every sea. They could readily be fitted with guns and turned into privateers in case of war. But navies cannot be improvised in these days. If a country as large and important as ours is to have a navy at all, it can afford to have one strong enough to serve adequately those purposes we have in view in the maintenance of any sort of naval establishment. We should either have a navy of no importance at all, like China or Mexico, or else we should have one commensurate with our needs, in the opinion of those best qualified to judge. If we had possessed only two or three more battleships in 1898 Admiral Cervera would not have sailed to our side of the Atlantic, and we should have settled the Cuban question with Spain by peaceful negotiation. Unfitness for self-defense does not make for peace in a warlike world. Until the world is organized for the avoidance of war, and the protection of the weak against the strong, it is the duty of the United States to be well prepared.

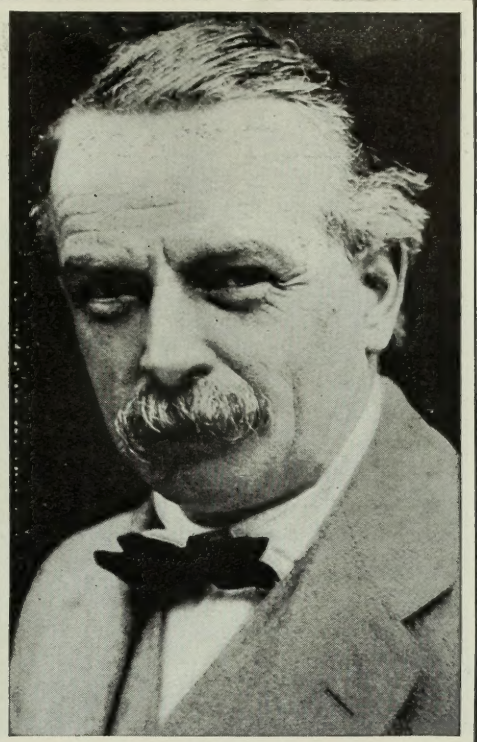
*America's
Present
Sentiment*

Three great sentiments, let us repeat, swept across the United States in June. First, we prize our blessings of peace and we will not fool about the fringes of Europe's War, nor will we be drawn by any untoward incident or process of logic into a European mid-continental contest for supremacy that is not ours to decide. Second, in an age like this we cannot afford to jeopardize our supreme right to live at peace, by being unprepared for self-defense. Third, all the peoples of Europe are akin to us, our civilization is derived from theirs in great part, and we must strive to help them find a basis for peace. To that end, we as citizens and as neutrals should do nothing that would put us in a false position or impair our national usefulness or influence in the great cause of world harmony.

*England's
Opinion*

That the people of England would rejoice to have the war ended is not to be doubted, no matter what their newspapers say about the need of crushing Germany. Senator Bev-

eridge's article contributed to this number of the REVIEW, on war opinion in England as studied by him earlier in the year, shows clearly the trying conditions with which the leaders have had to contend in raising and equipping armies. English statesmen do not misunderstand the European conditions. They are willing to have Germany live and prosper. But Germany's neighbors must be secure, the wrongs of Belgium must be righted, and any peace must have ample guarantees of permanence. England being a free country, there will always be grumbling and certain evidences of industrial and political discord. But there is great spirit in English leadership; and Hodge will follow on, even though he may grumble. It remains to be seen how well the new coalition cabinet may be able to meet difficulties and carry on the war. But it has elements of strength, and its formation averts the serious calamity of a general election that could otherwise not have been avoided. The members of the new ministry, and their respective posts, are shown in the group picture printed across the two following pages. Mr. Asquith, of



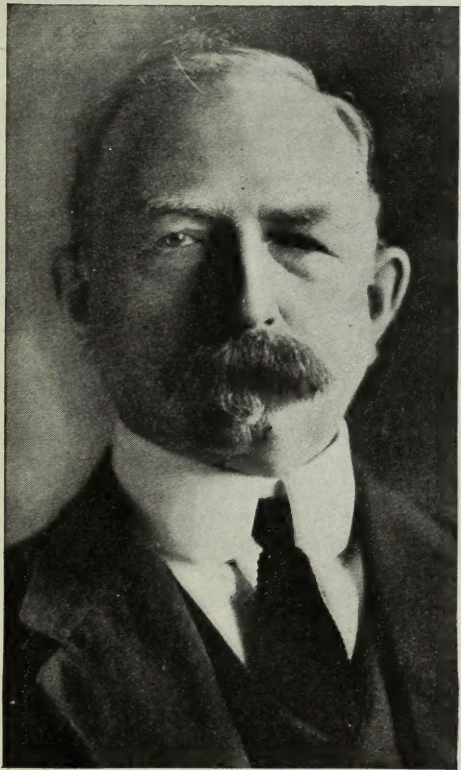
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DAVID LLOYD GEORGE
("England's Man of the Hour")

course, remains as Prime Minister, and Lord Kitchener holds his post as Minister of War.

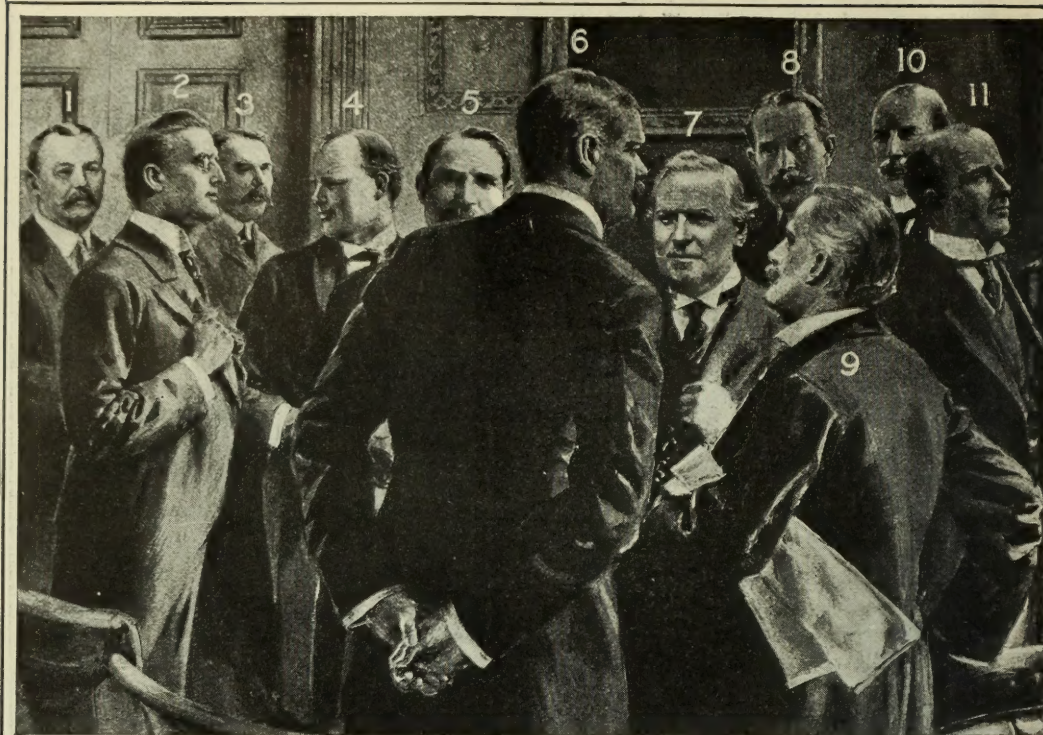
*Kitchener a
Mere Mortal*

But Kitchener no longer dominates the situation. He had been given a threefold task that was beyond his power or that of any other man. He had been made responsible as War Minister for England's part in the conduct of the struggle. It had belonged to him as a second task to raise and train by far the largest armies ever known to Englishmen. Third, it had been his duty to make effective use of agencies for the supply of all kinds of materials and munitions of war. It was hard enough to enlist the men, give them training, and find suitable officers. But the further course of the war has shown that supplies, and particularly guns and ammunition, are the greatest need. The recent defeats of Russia seem to be due to lack of such material. The organization on a great scale of the English industries which can supply these things is the most pressing need. A new cabinet office has been created, and Mr. Lloyd George is now Minister of Munitions, and he, rather than Kitchener, is the man of the hour,—the foremost leader in the Empire.



SIR THOMAS SHAUGHNESSY

(Who is marshaling Canadian resources for the British Government)



From the *Illustrated London News*

BRITAIN'S NEW COALITION WAR CABINET, WHICH TOOK OFFICE MAY 27,—

1, Arthur Henderson, President of the Board of Education (Lab.); 2, Austen Chamberlain, Secretary of State for India (U.); 3, T. M'Kinnon Wood, Secretary for Scotland (L.); 4, Winston Churchill, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster (L.); 5, Bonar Law, Secretary of State for the Colonies (U.); 6, Lord Kitchener, Secretary of State for War (Non-party); 7, Mr. Asquith, Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury (L.); 8, Lord Crewe, Lord President of the Council (L.); 9, Mr. Lloyd George, Minister of Munitions (L.); 10, Mr. Lewis Harcourt, First Commissioner of Works (L.); 11, Reginald M'Kenna, Chancellor of the Exchequer (L.).

*Lloyd George's
Great Plans*

Sir Thomas Shaughnessy, president of the Canadian Pacific Railroad system, has been chosen to direct in a large way the agencies on this side of the Atlantic coöperating in Mr. Lloyd George's efforts to create an ample supply of munitions. The aroused and courageous spirit of Canada in this period is wonderfully shown, for the benefit of our readers, in an article contributed to this number of the *REVIEW* by Mr. J. P. Gerrie, who writes from Edmonton, but is familiar with the East as well as the West. British officials are coming to the United States and Canada to bring businesslike system into expenditure of vast sums involved in contracts for war supplies. Meanwhile Mr. Lloyd George brought before Parliament, late in June,—with the assurance of almost immediate passage,—a remarkable bill placing all munition-making factories under government control, strictly limiting their profits, and providing for their operation by a volunteer army of artisans pledged to work anywhere

in the United Kingdom, under prescribed conditions, at the government's request. In the near future there is to be a general tax on all business profits, and a great increase in the rate of the income tax.

*European
Feeling,—
Germany's Iron*

It is said that in Russia the Czar goes about unguarded, and that there are great signs of reform and progress among the people and in the spirit of the government. In France there is unity, silence, and unflagging courage, but a pervasive sense of the deep loss and wrong of war. Germany goes on with no break in her system of war management and supply. Organization pervades every department of German activity. The normal iron output of Germany is almost twice that of England, while Germany now controls the large iron and coal product of Belgium, and by far the greater part (probably four-fifths) of the iron and coal areas of France, which lie in the Republic's extreme northern belt. It was only last month that the full nature and ex-



INCLUDING THE CHIEF LIBERAL AND UNIONIST LEADERS

(12, Sir Stanley Buckmaster, Lord Chancellor (L.); 13, Sir Edward Grey, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs (L.); 14, Sir John Simon, Secretary of State for Home Affairs (L.); 15, Walter Runciman, President of the Board of Trade (L.); 16, Augustine Birrell, Chief Secretary for Ireland (L.); 17, Walter Long, President of the Local Government Board (U.); 18, Lord Selborne, President of the Board of Agriculture (U.); 19, Sir Edward Carson, Attorney-General (U.); 20, Lord Curzon of Kedleston, Lord Privy Seal (U.); 21, A. J. Balfour, First Lord of the Admiralty (U.); 22, Lord Lansdowne, no portfolio, (U.).

tent of Germany's advantages in this control of coal, iron, and steel became widely apparent. German authorities now say openly that the turning over of vast American resources for the manufacture of war munitions, such as guns, cartridges, and projectiles, to the service of the Allies, amounts in effect to making the United States the most formidable of Germany's foes. This view, however, looks forward to the second year of the war, rather than backward to the first.

means is explained for our readers in an article of exceptional clearness and value by Mr. Stoddard, who wrote for us last November regarding Italy's position and problems as a neutral. Our distinguished correspondent, Mr. Yovitchévitch, the Montenegrin statesman, writes of the complexity of aims and motives among the Balkan states, and both Mr. Stoddard and Mr. Simonds add to the discussion of affairs in that troubled region.

Austria's Gains and Losses

Germany's valor and great resources had helped Austria to reorganize her shattered armies, and to share with General Mackensen in the credit of recapturing Przemyśl and the rolling back of the Russian armies that were occupying Galicia. But Italy's entrance into the war at that juncture created fresh perils for the empire of the unfortunate Francis Joseph. He had forced war upon Serbia, and had found war facing him in every direction. What Italy's entrance

What Will Happen in the Balkans

King Constantine seems to be recovering from his dangerous illness, but the elections in Greece last month resulted in a great victory for the supporters of the former Prime Minister, Venizelos. If he had not been opposed by the King, Greece would have joined the Allies several months ago and aided in the expedition against Constantinople. Italy's program must, however, affect the future action of Greece; and Venizelos may not be able to obtain as good a price from the Allies



M. VENIZELOS, FORMER PREMIER AND LEADING STATESMAN OF GREECE, VISITING THE SPHINX DURING HIS VOLUNTARY EXILE IN EGYPT. HE IS ABOUT TO RESUME POWER



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

A SNAPSHOT OF THE KING OF GREECE AND FIVE OF HIS CHILDREN

for Greek aid now as was offered to him early in the spring. Both Rumania and Bulgaria are also in positions of great difficulty, and while they have seemed most likely to join the Allies, they have been demanding assurances in the matter of recompense and reward, with rival demands hard to adjust.

*The Peoples
Want Peace*

It was plain that no nation was to gain anything easily, or without paying a terrible price.

Austria would have made free concessions to Italy, of a kind that Italy will not gain by war without much sacrifice of men and money. Austria and Hungary will fight desperately to hold their respective outlets to the sea at Trieste and Fiume. The mountaineers of the Southern Tyrol will struggle like heroes to retain all but the extreme southern tip of the province of Trentino. There is only one gain that hundreds of millions of men, women, and children in Europe desire above all things, and that is the attainment of peace and the right to live securely. This must come chiefly through internal movements. The women of Germany, working with the Social Democrats, must put an end to militarism and must make Prussia a democratic country at any cost or sacrifice. Other oppressed peoples must also seek the day of reckoning with their ruling caste. Germany is trying to make herself believe that this is a war of peoples and not one of governments and rulers. But the Germans are bound to face the truth; and the truth will in due time set them free. Time for a truce should not be long delayed. The pride of kings and rulers should be made to yield to the demand of outraged and suffering humanity. America, in league with other neutral nations, should be ready to urge mediation and find the basis for an accepted and guaranteed world peace.

*Ten Days
of
Suspense*

When the light of clear judgment prevails again there will be profound gratitude to the President of the United States for having taken a course exactly opposite to that which the newspapers, through ten anxious days, had announced that he was going to take. Never were newspaper headlines more reckless or mischief-making. Knowing nothing whatever about the plans of the President, the newspapers, nevertheless, day after day, from the 31st of May to the 11th of June, kept the entire American public stirred up and in anxious suspense, by declaring that the President was about to send a rigid ultimatum to

Germany, which could hardly result otherwise than in war between the two countries. The first American note to Germany, following the sinking of the *Lusitania*, had borne date of the 15th of May. A preliminary German reply had been made on May 28 and issued in the United States on the 30th. The newspapers of the 31st declared that this German note was resented at Washington as wholly unsatisfactory, and that it would be followed, probably within forty-eight hours, by an answer which President Wilson had immediately prepared and which was peremptory, unsparing, and relentless, in its accusations and its demands. We were told that Ambassador Gerard was about to leave Berlin, that diplomatic relations would probably be severed at once, and that Germany would be forced to the alternative of humbly obeying our orders in every particular, or else declaring war against the United States.

*Newspaper
Hysteria at
Its Worst*

The most sickening thing in American history, perhaps, was the reckless gloating of American newspapers over a dangerous situation that they were doing everything in their power to create. President Wilson's rejoinder was not sent on June 1, nor on June 2; and the public was informed in terrorizing headlines that it was being held back while all the dictionaries were being searched to find words more "strong" and "emphatic" with which



UNCLE SAM (to Mr. Bryan): "Don't be scared, William; I'm not!"

From the *Tribune* (South Bend)

to build up the most crushing piece of un-diplomatic rhetoric ever launched by one government against another. Each day, beginning with early morning and continuing with hourly editions until bedtime, came forth the newspaper extras with their alarming headlines, shrieking about "*the note*!" "*THE NOTE!!*" "*THE NOTE!!!*" The President had a chat of a few minutes with the German Ambassador, and this was megaphoned as a most startling thing. Finally the climax of hysteria was reached when Mr. Bryan resigned on June 8 from his position as Secretary of State, because he could not affix his signature to a piece of diplomatic correspondence so likely to involve his country in the throes of a great war. Still the public was kept in the dark about the note itself, while the newspapers declared, with a renewal of their insane joy, that Bryan's action proved all that they had been saying for ten days. Certainly "*the note*" must be loaded with high explosives; and we might confidently believe ourselves to be on the brink of a war with Germany. This would offer the newspapers a prospect of using screaming headlines for an indefinitely long time to come. (It may be remarked parenthetically that whatever good or bad effects great wars may have in other directions, they render the daily press hysterical, sensational, and eager to keep the public frenzied,—though it is fair to say that some newspapers have retained their sanity, even through the past two months.)

- Calm
Rather than
Storm

At length, on the morning of June 11, a tortured and anxious nation was allowed to read the note that they had been told was fraught with the issue of peace and war, and big with the fate of America for many generations yet to come. It had been dispatched in code to Germany on the night of the 9th, but had been withheld from Americans until the 11th. A more courteous and reassuring note, so far as form and manner go, could not have been conceived. Instead of giving the impression that somebody was picking a quarrel, and that a bad matter was being made worse by angry manners, the reader was not able to discover a single phrase or word that was provoking or hostile or recriminatory. The note stood clearly for just principles; carried no threats either open or concealed; shut no door in the face of a calm study of ways and means by which to remedy wrong without perpetrating greater wrong. When read in future days, in the light of historical facts,

the value of the note will be found to lie in what it does not say. Its affirmative ground is that the United States, as a neutral nation and speaking for all neutrals, does not admit that neutral rights are impaired by the exigencies of one belligerent or another. Its effect on the minds of a troubled nation was like that of a beautiful June morning, after threatening skies and unverified predictions of floods and cyclones.

Americans
Have Some
Real Rights

In spite of reckless newspapers, nobody in the United States desired to be dragged into war. We have a hundred million people in this country, whose real and practical rights at home are very much more important to them than their technical and theoretical rights abroad. There were millions of people whispering to one another, during the period when the newspapers were shrieking defiance at Germany, that they did not wish to be embroiled in European quarrels, and that they felt entitled to peace and quiet here at home. Since neither they nor any of their neighbors desired to navigate dangerous European waters just now,—as passengers on belligerent ships carrying munitions of war,—they did not see why their somewhat vague theoretical right to commit this obvious impropriety should be championed to the point of being forced to a sharp issue. They were not infatuated with the idea that many of their sons might have to lay down their lives to vindicate the consistency of dialecticians at Washington who were said to be engaged in exchanging arguments with foreign governments, on questions of so-called "international law." Many of these simple citizens, who had never read a page of the elementary textbook on international law written by young Professor A, of B College, were privately saying in their family circles that they wished those "officials" at Washington who were being mysteriously quoted every day as working overtime in their endeavor to break into the European quarrel, would lock their office doors and go off fishing for the entire summer. This was the real American feeling.

Government
as a
Menace

To these plain people we seemed to be drifting dangerously into a situation like that of Europe a year ago. None of the nations of Europe wished to fight against one another, and none of them had anything to fight about. All of them were the victims of obsession on the part of their governing groups. There could have been no war in Europe if the peoples



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ROBERT LANSING, SECRETARY OF STATE
(As photographed June 12 at his desk in the Department offices)

had been truly represented. The game of rulers, politicians, professional militarists, imperialist and jingo editors, and the makers of war supplies, is opposed to the interest of ordinary citizens and of all women and children. Busy "foreign offices" are dangerous,— "King Log" is safer than "King Stork." The United States has not nearly as much cause to become embroiled in the European war as has the Argentine Republic or Brazil. Those countries have been very much more seriously interrupted and disturbed in their trade relations than has this country. Relatively to population, their citizens travel in Europe far more than do ours; and their reasons for doing so are much more urgent because of personal and business relationships. We have no reason for engaging in diplomatic duels with Germany or England that any other neutral nation does not have in equal or greater measure. The interests of Holland and the Scandinavian countries are involved in many difficult and perplexing ways. Ours are involved, relatively speaking, to a very slight extent. Every American who now goes to Europe understands the risks. The questions at stake are common to many countries.

*The Right
to Have
Peace*

All this is said, not by way of implied criticism of the Administration at Washington, but by way of defense of that Administration from the current impressions created by alarmist newspapers from the time of the sinking of the *Lusitania*, on May 7, until well after the sending of President Wilson's second note to Germany, on June 9. The thing that the newspapers have utterly refused to explain to their readers has been always present in the thoughts and plans of the Administration. If a wrong is committed that needs to be atoned for or redressed, the newspapers talk "war," "war," "war" incessantly. War proves nothing, remedies nothing, intensifies wrong. President Wilson and his Cabinet are clearly aware that *the American people have a right to avoid war*,—to be secure and at peace here at home,—and that *this right is paramount*. It is an imbecile notion that a nation's honor requires it to go to war for every difficulty or dispute that may arise. Both England and Germany have been constantly violating international law since the outbreak of the war. But none of these violations takes the form of intentional aggres-

sion or insult against any neutral country. The harm to neutrals is in all cases incidental to the colossal and desperate character of the war itself. Our Administration intends to protest, calmly and without compromise, against all kinds of disregard of the rights of neutrals; but unquestionably our Government has no intention of plunging this nation into war, unless for reasons so clear and unmistakable that millions upon millions of plain citizens, all the way from Florida to Puget Sound, and from Maine to California, would agree unanimously that war was inevitable. War should require clear assent.

*The
Menace of
the Press*

Newspapers are run by ordinary human beings. In August and September of last year these men were sensitive to the horrible and dastardly nature of warfare among civilized nations, and they were clear in their support of neutrality, not merely as a doctrine, but as a practical thing to be worked for and, if necessary, to be sacrificed for. But, through this awful year, war has been coming to be the rule, and peace the exception. Newspaper men, like soldiers, become accustomed to bloodshed. There has been a gradual but profound change in the attitude of the press towards war, as an evil in itself. Furthermore, the public also becomes calloused and loses its sensibility, if only the events of war are far enough away. Thus the sale of large editions and the demand for "extras" began to wane. War news of the most appalling kind seemed tame. The only way to stimulate the appetite for sensation was to bring things nearer home. Hence the use of the *Lusitania* incident in large headlines for many days, and even weeks, and the attempt to make it appear that, because there were well-known Americans on board the unfortunate ship, the catastrophe was primarily an American incident in the legal and diplomatic sense,—which, of course, it was not. The newspapers seemed intent upon getting America into war over that bad affair.

*Wrongs and
Their Proper
Redress*

Any American now sojourning in England takes his chances of being killed by bombs dropped from a German Zeppelin. The dropping of bombs on undefended places is repugnant to the spirit and opposed to the rules of international law. America and all other neutral countries have a right to protest against such warfare, and indeed ought to do so more vigorously than they have yet done. But the killing of an American in England,

in such fashion, ought not to be so dealt with in diplomacy as to result in the requiring of millions of Americans to sacrifice their dearest treasures at the feet of the god of war. It is quite time that the American public should have it out with the American newspapers. If we were destined to have trouble with Germany, it should have been long months ago, when Belgium was invaded. It is true we were not signers of the original treaty which especially guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium. The signers were Prussia, France, and England. But we were signers of a recent treaty drafted at The Hague which laid down the rights of neutrals, as well as their duties, in time of war; and it will always remain a matter for honest difference of opinion whether or not the United States and all other neutral governments should not have made prompt protest in Belgium's behalf, and perhaps have followed protest by an ultimatum. Germany's action was so swift, however, and Belgium was so quickly in the position of a belligerent,—with England and France presumably able to make good their Belgian guarantee,—that there seemed little if any practical way of giving official expression to the disapproval of neutral nations. Our Government thought it wise to say nothing on the subject.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

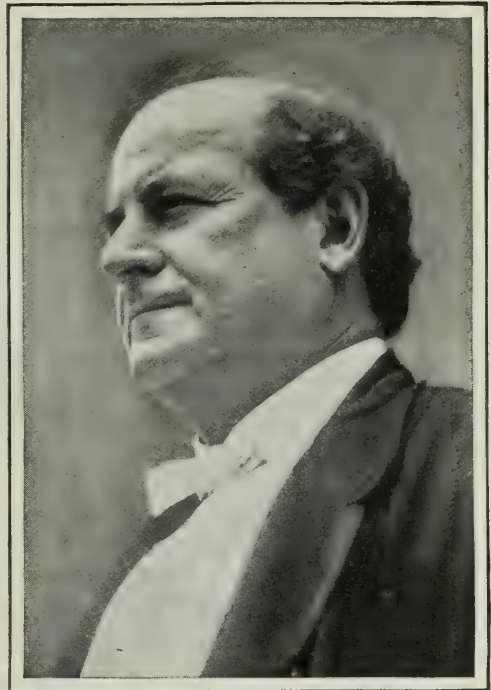
PRESIDENT WILSON, EX-SECRETARY BRYAN, AND PRESIDENT WILSON'S SECRETARY, MR. TUMULTY, WALKING THROUGH THE STREETS OF WASHINGTON SEVERAL MONTHS AGO

*A League
of Neutrals
Needed*

Nevertheless, the attack upon Belgium was a threat against the safety of every neutral country, particularly against those which, like the United States, have very small military equipment. The United States ought now, without further delay, to take steps looking toward a league of nations for strengthening the safety of those that choose to live at peace minding their own business. As regards Germany's present course in making a zone of torpedo warfare around England, it is true that neutral rights are concerned. But, when reduced to real values, the contrast is almost as wide as possible. Both England and Germany are denying to neutrals their clear right to sail in certain waters without harm or molestation. This is very inconvenient for countries like Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, having a great deal of shipping and being close to the affected zones. But even to them it is as the small dust in the balance when compared with the menace to all neutral rights involved in Germany's ruthless subjugation of Belgium. As for ourselves, we have so few merchant ships, and so little real need of taking risks in the danger belts, that neither England's illegal blockade of Germany nor Germany's reckless terrorism along the British coasts hurts us fatally in any rights that our duties or interests require us to exercise. We claim our rights; yet for safety we may postpone their use.

*What
Citizens
May Do*

It is well worth while, then, for our Government to state clearly to all belligerents, both the practical and the theoretical rights of neutrals. But it is also good statesmanship and sound common sense to deal patiently and carefully with incidents as they arise. Meanwhile there are many things that the citizen should understand, as belonging within the realm of his freedom of action. It is entirely permissible to take the ground that one will not allow his friends, particularly women and children, to travel to Europe on ships carrying munitions of war for the supply of a belligerent. Good Americans must see that this adds insult to injury. While there is no law that interferes with the manufacture, sale, and export of guns, powder, and other munitions, it is to be remembered, on the other hand, that there is no principle either of law or ethics that requires anybody to go into this sort of traffic. The people who are doing it have no motive except to make money. The nations at war

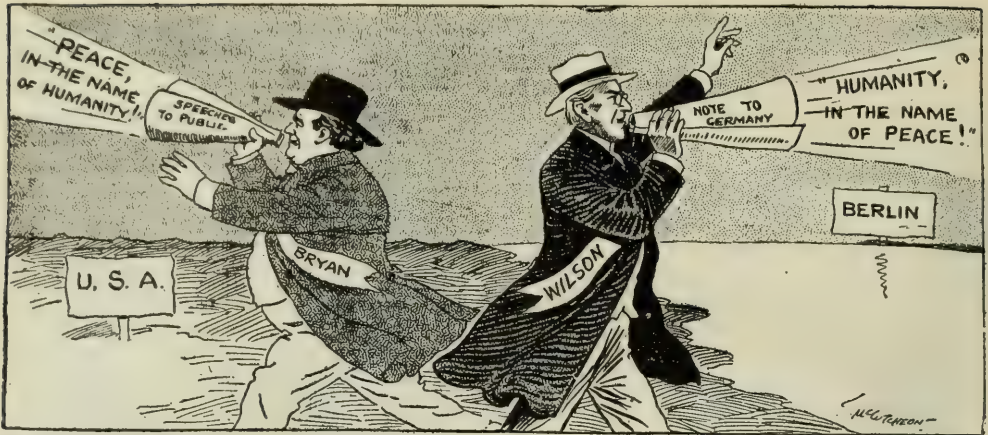


Photograph by the American Press Association, New York
WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN

are all of them losing money; and their citizens are making sacrifices of life and fortune.

*A Matter
of
Choice*

We Americans have proclaimed to all nations the coming day when swords should be beaten into plowshares. We are not now obliged to convert our plowshares into swords,—for the use of our impoverished neighbors at three times the ordinary price of weapons! The war has stopped the vast European trade of the International Harvester Company in all kinds of farm machines and implements. This company, indeed, might have been tempted to use its idle factories for the making of rifles and various kinds of war supplies. But we have not heard that it has chosen to enter this lucrative trade. Nor have we seen it stated that the United States Steel Corporation, with its exceptional facilities, is entering the market for big guns and ammunition. There is no feasible way, it would seem, by which the Government can discourage the making, selling, and loading upon ships of these materials for waging war. It is not a very handsome thing to be mixed up in a war with the sole motive of gain, rather than that of patriotism or principle. This, however, is a matter for the private judgment of those concerned.



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BOTH FOR PEACE, BUT BY DIFFERENT ROUTES
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

*As Seen from
a Different
Angle*

But when such supplies are nearing the scene where they are to be brought into actual use for the killing of men, the ship that bears them is in reality as much an instrument and agency of war as if she carried great guns on her own decks. It is much to be feared that a nation engaged in desperate warfare will not be wholly punctilious and correct in observing the time-honored custom of "visit and search," when the war itself is largely dependent upon the arrival of war supplies. And this is especially true when the supplies come from a neutral country that has diverted its normal industrial activities to the abnormal making of such munitions,—in an atmosphere of speculative greed for profits. Under such circumstances, let us repeat, it is in bad taste for American citizens to take passage with these munition cargoes, and still expect their Government to busy itself about their safety. It is the right of the private American citizen to demand that passenger ships carry no war munitions. It is his right to sail, if possible, under a neutral flag, rather than that of a belligerent. It is his further right to sail, if possible, under his own flag, rather than that of any other country. If his heart is full of zeal for one side or the other in the European struggle, he may cross the sea as best he can and offer to enlist and fight. Or he may show the lofty spirit of a certain Boston lady who offered to send her son. Thus one may go and take his chances under a belligerent flag. But American common sense is quite opposed to taking "joy rides" on the ammunition wagon amidst European scenes of carnage, and then expecting Uncle Sam to furnish insurance.

*Bryan's
Alarming
Performance*

Mr. Bryan's resignation, on June 8, created a real sensation because of the circumstances. For ten days the newspapers had tortured the public into a mood that had passed from uneasiness to one of almost agonizing suspense,—all with regard to the mysterious "note." The President had been represented as a sort of High Priest in the Holy of Holies;—or like a Moses enveloped in cloud who was in due time to emerge with tablets of stone upon which were to be found engraved such words of finality as must determine the fate of an anxious people. Suddenly it was announced that the Secretary of State had resigned, and that his resignation had been promptly accepted. This was taken to mean that the President's course was tending towards war, while Bryan without avail was counseling peace methods. In his letter of resignation, which was given to the public immediately, Mr. Bryan declared:

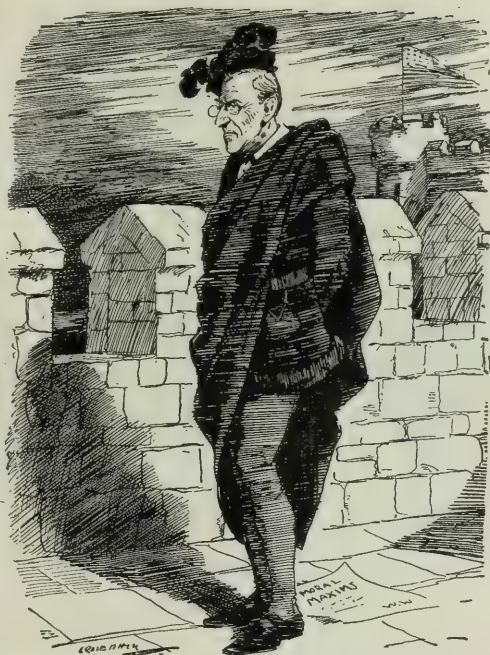
You have prepared for transmission to the German Government a note in which I cannot join without violating what I deem to be an obligation to my country, and the issue involved is of such moment that to remain a member of the cabinet would be as unfair to you as it would be to the cause which is nearest my heart, namely, the prevention of war.

Referring specifically to "the problems arising out of the use of submarines against merchantmen," Mr. Bryan further told the President that "we find ourselves differing irreconcilably as to the methods which should be employed." He added that as a private citizen he would endeavor to promote the ends which the President had in view but did not "feel at liberty to use."

It is not strange that the public should have been worried on reading these words. Mr. Bryan and the President had presumably been working in great harmony for two years; and this break could only mean, in the common estimation, that President Wilson was going to follow the advice of the newspapers, and provoke Germany to an immediate declaration of war. It was hard to wait, after Bryan's alarming words of Tuesday, until the note itself was made public Friday morning. Then a few millions of people felt as if they had been subjected to a rather unfair practical joke, or some kind of needless hoax. For never was a state paper more free either from stinging phrases on the one hand, or from the hard logic that corners an adversary and leaves no room for escape on the other hand. So far as we are aware, the note itself disarmed all its anticipatory critics. It was not belligerent, it was not drastic. Mr. Wilson had indulged in none of his flashes of irony. He had put into it none of his charm of style. It was, in short, merely a suitable rejoinder to the German answer. The sentences were rather long and dull. Except for one or two phrases and favorite words, it bore no marks at all of Woodrow Wilson's composition.

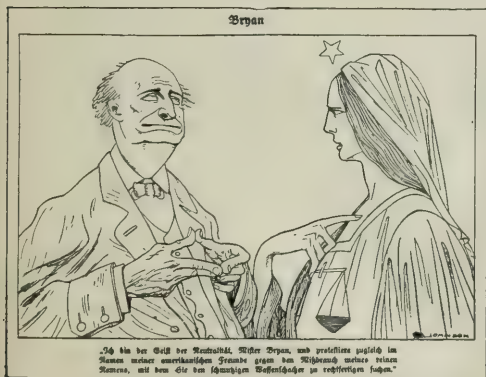
Favorably
Received
Abroad

It was feared that Mr. Bryan's resignation might be regarded in Germany as evidence of divided councils, and might thus hamper the further course of diplomatic proceedings. And taking this serious view of the matter, a great many leading American newspapers went so far as to denounce Mr. Bryan as acting in a way that was morally if not legally treasonable. This, of course, was quite silly. The



HAMLET U. S. A. [AN ENGLISH VIEW OF WILSON]
(Scene: The ramparts of the White House)
PRESIDENT WILSON: "The time is out of joint; O cursed spite, that ever I was born to set it right!"
Voice of Col. Roosevelt (off): "That's so!"
From *Punch* (London)

impression created abroad was that of American union and strength, rather than of division and weakness, inasmuch as the Administration did not allow the Secretary of State's personal views and feelings to alter its line of action. Mr. Bryan had desired to proceed in a different way; but he seems to have had incidents in mind, while the President was dwelling upon principles. Germany had, in a supplemental communication of June 1, admitted the President's principles as applying to the cases of the *Cushing* and the *Gulflight*. This had gone very far to clear up the situation. In the matter of the *Lusitania*, Germany had made certain allegations of fact as to the belligerent nature and character of the ship, which might if true have affected somewhat the principles involved. The President sweeps away, however, those errors of fact, and holds to the main principle of the humane treatment of innocent passengers in the case of a ship which was predominantly engaged in the passenger business. With great serenity of tone and propriety of manner, Mr. Wilson's note makes its clear distinctions. The more frequently and carefully the President's note is read, the more convincing and reasonable do its positions seem



BRYAN AND THE REPROVING SPIRIT

(The spirit of neutrality protests to Mr. Bryan against the abuse of her name by the attempt to justify under it the American war munitions business)
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

to be. The note gives great prominence to the suggestion that the United States Government will be glad to use its good offices in an attempt to find some basis for an understanding between Germany and England "by which the character and conditions of war upon the sea may be changed."

Wilson
and
Bryan

There need be no doubt in any quarter as to the fact that Mr. Bryan was greatly esteemed by the President and by all of his colleagues in the Cabinet. It is often the case that the best way to take such affairs is to accept what those concerned state as to facts and reasons. The President's letter of June 8 is notable, and will have its place in the history of American politics and public affairs. We quote it, therefore, without abridgement:

MY DEAR MR. BRYAN: I accept your resignation only because you insist upon its acceptance; and I accept it with much more than deep regret,—with a feeling of personal sorrow.

Our two years of close association have been very delightful to me. Our judgments have accorded in practically every matter of official duty and of public policy until now; your support of the work and purposes of the Administration has been generous and loyal beyond praise; your devotion to the duties of your great office and your eagerness to take advantage of every great opportunity for service it afforded has been an example to the rest of us; you have earned our affectionate admiration and friendship. Even now we are not separated in the object we seek, but only in the method by which we seek it.



"GOOD BYE, BILL, TAKE KEER O' YOURSELF"
From the *Times-Dispatch* (Richmond)

It is for these reasons that my feeling about your retirement from the Secretaryship of State goes so much deeper than regret. I sincerely deplore it. Our objects are the same, and we ought to pursue them together.

I yield to your desire only because I must, and wish to bid you Godspeed in the parting. We shall continue to work for the same causes even when we do not work in the same way. With affectionate regard,

Sincerely yours,

WOODROW WILSON.

It is to be said that Mr. Bryan's expressions were equally cordial, and, further, that they were regarded as entirely sincere. Those having direct and confidential sources of information have been able to declare that Mr. Bryan stood very high in the esteem and good-will of the entire Cabinet. It is also said by well-informed men that he was highly regarded by the foreign diplomats at Washington, who found him always ready to receive them, and indefatigable in his devotion to the work of his department. The newspaper attacks upon Mr. Bryan have not, therefore, represented the feeling or point of view of those most concerned at Washington.

Bryan
in the Wrong
Position

Yet it has never been the opinion of most of the men competent to pass judgment that Mr. Bryan was in his right place as Secretary of State. His work is that of influencing popular audiences, as a speaker on the platform. He is a powerful campaigner for the causes that he believes in. He hates war, and there is no cause just now so important as that of permanent peace based upon the triumph of liberty and justice. He hates the evils of drink, and feels impelled to take a popular part in the great agitation for nation-wide prohibition. He did not find it possible, as Secretary of State, to avoid going out from time to time to address large audiences on his favorite themes. Sometimes he was away making speeches when the established etiquette of a portfolio like his would have required that the minister of foreign affairs be referred to in the papers as "silently and vigilantly on duty at his post." Furthermore, Mr. Bryan has continued, through these two years of his secretaryship, to run his political periodical known as the *Commoner*. Nor has he left its readers in doubt as to his immense activity in the conduct of this organ.

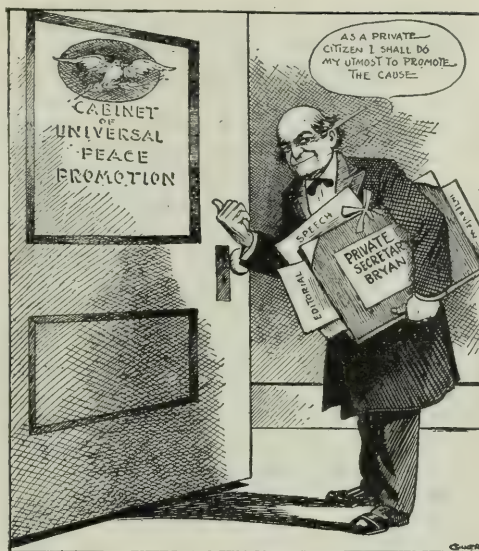
As Editor
of the
Commoner

Each month it has fairly teemed with editorials signed "W. J. Bryan." These have had the shockingly free and dashing tone of the most unrestrained partisan editor of the old school.

They have lambasted the Republicans, whether as a party or as individuals. Never in the history of America has a Secretary of State openly carried on outside activities that were so far from the supposed traditions and dignities of the office as Mr. Bryan's rough-and-tumble signed editorial screeds that have appeared in vast numbers in the successive issues of the *Commoner*. This editorializing has evidently been done as the minor, side task of a vigorous and exuberant personage, to whom politics is as the breath of his nostrils, and who could not allow himself to be restrained from having his word upon every matter pending in Congress, or in the different States, or in the courts of law. In his May number, for example, besides many other signed editorials, he deals with the case of Barnes *versus* Roosevelt with delightful impartiality, averring the political badness of both of these men who,—not belonging to the Democratic party,—are equally to be regarded as public enemies. This rollicking partisanship of Bryan's belongs to the methods of thirty years ago. It ill becomes a Secretary of State in this serious epoch.

Bryan
Had Been
Superseded

Nothing quite like Mr. Bryan's withdrawal from a harmonious Cabinet at a critical moment has happened in our political annals. Lincoln and Seward differed greatly at times; but our foreign business was done through the Department of State, and the differences were not published in the newspapers. We now know that Mr. Lincoln had a good deal to do with the penning or revision of important diplomatic notes, but it was not known at the time. Our system contemplates the carrying on of executive business through the Cabinet officers, and Mr. Wilson has been our foremost advocate of such a system. When, therefore, he openly and avowedly superseded the Secretary of State in the preparation of diplomatic papers and in consultation with Ambassadors, it was evident that he could not accomplish the things that he believed to be necessary through the Department head; and this of itself should have been regarded as equivalent to a dismissal or to a request for resignation. In arranging his Cabinet, Mr. Wilson had two objects: (1) the leadership and control of the Democratic party for the sake of obtaining united action upon a legislative program; (2) the efficient conduct of the business of the several departments. Mr. Bryan was the leader of the party faction that triumphed in the Baltimore convention,



THE NEW SECRETARYSHIP
From the *Tribune* (Los Angeles)

and his personal work secured Mr. Wilson's nomination. If Mr. Bryan had been in the Senate, or in the House as Speaker or floor leader,—he could have cooperated with the work of the Administration and would not have gone into the Cabinet. From the standpoint of party unity, it seemed best to Mr. Wilson to have Mr. Bryan in the Cabinet, and this meant the foremost place.

Our Recent
Foreign
Policies

It was largely owing to Mr. Bryan's influence and efforts that the party was held together to pass the tariff bill, the currency bill, the trade commission bill, and other parts of the Administration program. But when it came to the important duties of his department, it has not seemed that the President at any time relied chiefly upon his Secretary of State. The Mexican policy, including the seizure of Vera Cruz and the subsequent withdrawal, has from the first been regarded as Wilson's rather than Bryan's. The sharp reversal of attitude as respects the rights of our coastwise trade in the Panama Canal, with the acceptance of English contentions that had been rejected by Taft and Knox, was regarded as Wilson's and not Bryan's policy. It has been highly unfortunate that during the past year, when every other nation has found it necessary to put its department of foreign affairs in the hands of men of great experience and weight, this country should have had as Secretary of State a man not regarded by his own chief as com-

petent to write diplomatic notes or handle delicate situations. The Secretary should be better qualified than the President.

*Parties
Forgotten*

Our parties are not, like those of England, essential divisions. Ours are rival organizations of politicians. When matters of great gravity arise, such as may involve peace and war, this country cannot be ruled by a party, because party distinctions are forgotten. For the Secretaryship of State Mr. Wilson ought to have the best man in the country. He will make a mistake if he believes that it is wise for him to be President and Secretary of State at the same time. Our system of government does not work upon those lines. Obviously the department should have its counselors and assistants, and effective organization. Upon the retirement of Mr. John Bassett Moore as Counselor of the State Department, at the end of the first year of this Administration, Mr. Robert Lansing, of Watertown, N. Y., was appointed in his place. In our issue for April, 1915, we published an excellent article by Dr. James Brown Scott, setting forth Mr. Lansing's exceptional value and ability in the department. He has already taken high rank as an authority upon points of international law, and his immediate appointment by President Wilson as "Secretary ad interim," to take Mr. Bryan's place until a permanent appointment should be made, was regarded on all hands as the right step to take. It is not necessary to mention the names that ru-

mor was last month associating with the appointment. There was a somewhat general feeling that unless Mr. Lane or Mr. Garrison should be transferred to the post it would be hard to find as suitable a Secretary as Mr. Lansing himself, though he may or may not belong in the ranks of the Democratic party, so far as the public has ever heard. He is evidently a good American, a trained diplomat, and a competent official. Who cares what party ticket he has usually voted? But, if named, he should be Secretary in fact.

*The Justly
Praised "Bryan
Treaties"*

Since resigning, Mr. Bryan has been in his proper sphere, and everybody is the gainer. His talks about the war and about the making of peace and its future safeguards have been eminently wise and sensible. The newspaper assertions that he was going out to fight the President, split the Democratic party, and become a rival candidate for the nomination, have not been justified by any word or act of the great campaigner. He has been proclaiming the value of those treaties of his which call for investigation and delay before the outbreak of war between nations. In the days to come, it will appear that Mr. Bryan had really done one great and splendid piece of work as Secretary of State, in that he had secured the signature of about thirty treaties between the United States and other countries, requiring that unsettled disputes should be submitted to impartial inquiry, and that in all cases there should be an interval of a full year for mediation or arbitration before resort to arms. He very justly says that if the issue between Austria and Serbia had thus been dealt with, the present war would have been avoided. We are certainly bound by our own treaties and proposals; and it is impossible to imagine that this country would go to war upon any defined issues without being willing to adopt the method of settlement which we have been urging upon the entire world for just such emergencies.

*Certain Views
and
Methods*

Mr. Bryan must have been mistaken in supposing that the President would hesitate to adopt such plans in case of a difference with Germany. What the newspapers, and also Mr. Bryan, do not seem to remember, is that there has not yet arisen any specific and unsolvable differences with Germany. We are engaged in the diplomatic treatment of certain principles and incidents, with a view to settling them by direct diplomatic negotiation. We have not yet arrived at the point



SHIP OF STATE

THE PRESIDENT AT THE HELM
From the *Star* (Washington, D. C.)

of needing to invoke courts of inquiry or boards of arbitration. Mr. Bryan further thinks that the Government should not have permitted American citizens to travel on belligerent ships, or upon those carrying ammunition. Here again he seems to be right in his objects, but mistaken in proposed methods. There are plenty of people besides the President of the United States capable of advising people not to be reckless or foolish, nor needlessly to embarrass the Government. There has never been any time when, as a man of influence, or as a high official, it was not Mr. Bryan's privilege to advise and warn Americans to keep away from European war dangers in so far as possible. This is exactly the kind of advice the administration has given Americans with regard to war troubles and dangers in Mexico. Surely the Secretary of State is a high enough official to say what he pleases to Americans on subjects of that kind without consulting the President or anybody else. But this was a minor matter, quite apart from the main issue with which President Wilson was dealing. Mr. Bryan's statement involves a confusion as between sensible warning and legal prohibition.

"Force and
Persuasion"

All that Mr. Bryan says as to the difference between force and persuasion in the dealings of nations is sound and true. But the second note to Germany,—unlike the first one, which Bryan signed,—seems to follow the rule of persuasion, and not to embody an ultimatum. One of the most distinguished of American citizens remarked in private talk, late in May, that it was the *Gulfight* case, not the *Lusitania*, that had endangered peace between Germany and the United States. But Germany's note of June 1 is accepted by the President as satisfactory in respect to the *Gulfight* and the *Cushing*. The most important of Mr. Bryan's serial statements of last month was that issued to the German-Americans. It must now seem obvious to everybody that a strict insistence by our Government upon the rights of neutral commerce, from the very beginning of the war, would have been to the advantage of all nations, and would probably have prevented the launching by Germany of her submarine campaign against merchant ships. Our failure to follow up vigorously the position taken by us in the so-called "identic note" of February 20, to England and Germany, and our unexplained delay in dealing with questions still at issue between our Department



BONDS TO BIND A BROKEN WORLD
From the News (St. Paul)

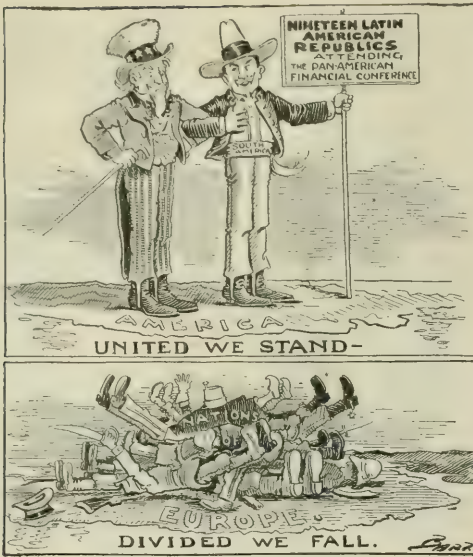
of State and the British foreign office, have made it far more difficult to deal with Germany than would otherwise have been the case. Mr. Bryan, as Secretary of State, would have done well to send a very "firm" note to Sir Edward Grey not later than the middle of last March.

Mexico
Again
Warned

At the beginning of June, our Government began to take open notice once more of conditions in Mexico. The President issued an important statement which, stripped of polite phrases, warned the several factional leaders in Mexico that they must come together or the United States would intervene. The warring factions are told to "set up a government at Mexico City which the great powers of the world can recognize and deal with—a government with whom the program of the revolution will be a business and not merely a platform." The address concludes with the following sentence:

I feel it to be my duty to tell them that if they cannot accommodate their differences and unite for this great purpose within a very short time, this Government will be constrained to decide what means should be employed by the United States in order to help Mexico save herself and serve her people.

There has been a considerable movement of the Red Cross Society for the relief of the widespread destitution in Mexico. Crops have not been planted in many districts, and there are reports of dreadful misery and

From the *News* (St. Paul)

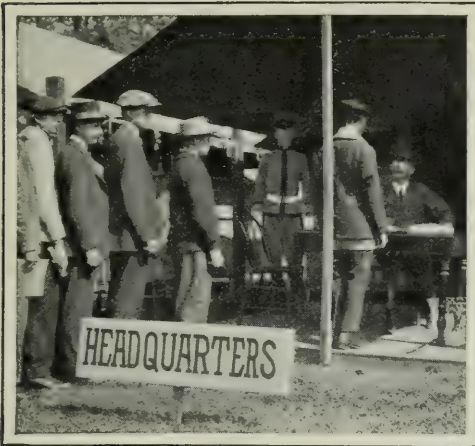
starvation. The forces of Carranza and Villa have been contending stubbornly, and since the President issued his statement our authorities at Washington have apparently fallen back into their old plan of waiting to see which one of the factions would get the better of the others and win some claim to to be recognized and dealt with by outside governments. There was report of a small expedition of marines under Admiral Howard, commanding our Pacific Coast squadron, to protect an American colony in northwest Mexico from the Yaqui Indians. There were those who intimated that renewed concern as to Mexico was intended to divert American attention from the strained relations with Germany, while also it might have the effect of ascertaining this country's sentiment regarding a suitable Mexican policy.

Our South American Relations

There are some to whom it seems regrettable that the frank association of the leading South American governments with our own in the discussion of Mexican affairs, a little more than a year ago, should not be resumed this year. From many standpoints the time is ripe for closer relationships with our South American neighbors. Brazil, Argentina, and Chile have entered into a new treaty for the strengthening of their neighborly relations. These and other South American countries have eminent international lawyers, and could well be brought into conference with our Government on all questions affecting

neutrals, as well as those relating to the amity and progress of the Western Hemisphere. Secretary McAdoo's Pan-American Conference on finance and trade is regarded as having proved a decided success. Committees were formed to take up the conditions and affairs of each country, and there will be far-reaching results. Secretary McAdoo and the administration will endeavor to promote in important ways the shipping facilities for our growing South American trade. The Secretary's closing address recommends an annual Pan-American Financial Conference in Washington. He urges the importance of the work of the international high commission, proposed by the committee on uniform legislation. The group committees were found so successful that Mr. McAdoo proposes to have them maintained permanently. Each committee is made up of representatives of a given country, together with a group of American business men. The conference adopted a resolution to the effect that improved ocean transportation facilities are a vital necessity, and governmental action in that direction is predicted. Not the least valuable part of the conference has been the personal friendships growing out of it. The South American visitors were welcomed not only in New York and Washington, but traveled somewhat extensively and were received with warm cordiality in a number of States and cities, seeing the United States in the pleasant days of May and June.

FOR FREEDOM OF THE SEAS
From the *Herald* (New York)



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GIVING SCHOOLBOYS THE RUDIMENTS OF MILITARY TRAINING

(Two hundred high-school students of Indiana were given an experimental course of two weeks' instruction and training at the Culver Military Academy, in May. The illustration at the left shows some of the boys upon their arrival, while the one on the right was made after two days at the camp)

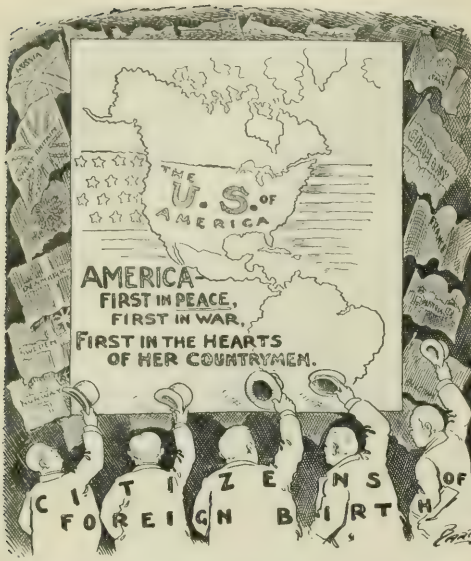


"Millions for Defense!"

The popular agitation for the strengthening of the national military and naval defenses gained new headway last month. Public men and private citizens of many types and affiliations enrolled themselves in the movement throughout the country. It was noticeable that well-known advocates of international peace were enlisted in the cause of national preparedness. A new impetus was given to General Wood's scheme for student military instruction camps by the success of a two-weeks' experiment at the Culver Military Academy, Indiana, in which two hundred high-school boys, selected from the various counties of Indiana, were brought together, organized into a battalion of four companies, and put through a hard daily schedule of drills, signaling, and other practical military duties. It was declared that as a result of the instruction thus received by these boys, whose ages ranged from fourteen to twenty, their drills at the end of the two weeks were superior to those of most National Guard organizations. Meanwhile, the Navy League has asked for a special session of Congress and an appropriation of \$500,000,000 for the army and navy, in order to build up both arms of the service. The superdreadnought *Arizona*, the largest of American battleships, was launched at the Brooklyn Navy Yard on June 19, and it was announced during the month that there are now nearing completion for the navy two superdreadnoughts, five destroyers, and six submarines. The *Arizona* has a displacement of 34,400 tons, and will have cost when completed about \$16,000,000.

A New Use for "The Fourth"

The success of the "Citizenship Reception" and "New Voters' Days," recently held by the cities of Philadelphia, Cleveland, Baltimore, and Los Angeles, suggested the setting apart of the coming Fourth of July as Americanization Day for the 13,000,000 immigrants in the United States. With a view to enlisting the interest of as many cities as possible in this observance of the day, Mr. Frederic C. Howe, Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York, addressed a circular letter to mayors throughout the country suggesting that each mayor appoint a committee to arrange suitable exercises in connection with the local Fourth of July celebration. The chief purpose of this new element in the program of Independence Day is to give dignity to the formal admission of aliens to American citizenship. It will, of course, be impracticable to have the legal steps in the process of naturalization completed on that day in the majority of cases, but the names and addresses of aliens admitted to citizenship during the preceding year may be obtained through the clerks of naturalization and invitations may be sent to each new citizen. At Cleveland last year small American flags and seal buttons of the city with the word "citizen" upon them were presented to all who showed tickets to the reception, and the new citizens were seated on a platform decorated with the flags of all nations. A large American flag was unfurled while "The Star-Spangled Banner" was sung and the "pledge of allegiance" recited in unison. National, State, and city officials and a prominent foreign-born citizen made addresses.



OUR FOREIGN-BORN CITIZENS ARE ALL FOR "AMERICA FIRST"

By "Bart," in the *News* (St. Paul)

*The Suggestion
Widely
Adopted*

More than fifty mayors immediately responded to Mr. Howe's letter, and cities with large immigrant population, such as Pittsburgh, Detroit, Jersey City, Boston, and Wilkes-barre, joined in accepting the suggestion. The city of Boston will hold its New Citi-

zens' Reception in the historic Faneuil Hall, while in New York City the reception will be held in the new stadium recently presented to the College of the City of New York by Adolph Lewisohn. Such gatherings on the great national holiday will help enforce the precept so clearly expressed by President Wilson in his address at Philadelphia on a similar occasion in May: "America does not consist of groups. A man who thinks of himself as belonging to a particular national group in America has not yet become an American." Even for native-born Americans this new form of observance of the day is likely to give to the Fourth of July, 1915, a new and richer meaning.

Workmen's Compensation—Pennsylvania—The article by Mr. William H. Hotchkiss, beginning on page 77 of this REVIEW, not only explains the changes in the New York Workmen's Compensation Law, but defines and illustrates the principles on which are based the compensation laws of many other States.

The series of six bills passed by the recent Pennsylvania legislature, but still awaiting the approval of Governor Brumbaugh when Mr. Hotchkiss' article was closed for the press, form the most important legislation of this kind for the current year. These laws permit employers to accept or reject the State's compensation plan, but for such as



Photograph by Bain News Service

NEW STADIUM AT THE CITY COLLEGE OF NEW YORK

(On May 29 the Greek Stadium, given to the City College by Adolph Lewisohn, was dedicated, and on July 4 it will be the scene of a great "Americanization Day" celebration)

elect not to accept the plan the old common-law defenses are eliminated. Compensation for injuries and death is based upon 50 per cent. of the weekly wage, and extends over periods ranging up to 400 weeks. These laws, together with the excellent child-labor enactment, on which we commented last month, were passed in the face of bitter opposition from important industrial interests in the State, and the fact that they are now on the statute-books is to be credited to the persistent and intelligent efforts of Governor Brumbaugh.

Possibly our readers west of the
Governor
Brumbaugh Alleghanies need to be reminded of the fact that the real achievements of the current year in progressive legislation must be credited to that stronghold of high-tariff Republicanism, the State of Pennsylvania, under the leadership of an unbossed Republican governor. In no other State have the forces of reaction been so decisively repulsed, and that by a Governor elected as a partisan by a strictly party vote. In our January number Dr. Oberholtzer outlined some of the qualities of leadership that had brought about the success of Governor Brumbaugh in the election, and that pointed to a successful career as Pennsylvania's chief executive. It is fair to say that this forecast has been fully realized during the Governor's six months' incumbency. He has stood out courageously as a champion of human rights and the general welfare against private interests, however powerful; and this attitude he has consistently maintained, not merely in the advocacy and approval of bills, but in the vetoing of not a few measures that were particularly desired by the "interests" and by the politicians. In his reorganization of the State Public Service Commission he has shown his purpose to make that branch of the State administration a real and vital force in safeguarding the interests of the community as against those of the corporations. It has been said that this new commission is the first appointive body in Pennsylvania allowed to pass upon questions affecting corporations that has not been in large measure named by those interests. The Keystone State evidently has a Governor of large caliber.

The summarized results of this
General
Welfare Laws year's law-making do not show any remarkable gains in social or welfare legislation, so-called. Something of a check to this form of activity has been

applied throughout the country. Here and there, conditions having become at last intolerable, State legislatures have responded to local appeals and have taken radical action. Thus the Missouri legislature entered the fight against tuberculosis in that State, making provision for State-aided county hospitals and permitting city councils and county courts to employ visiting nurses for tuberculosis patients. Having made these measures applicable to the State as a whole, the legislature passed three bills applying to the lead and zinc mine districts where the tuberculosis death-rate is extremely high,—46 per 10,000. These bills provide for the suppression of dust in the mines, for individual drinking-cups and sanitary devices, and for adequate bathing facilities and dressing-rooms for the miners, the aim being to prevent the transmission of the disease through mine dust. In Nebraska one of the new laws prohibits contract labor in the State penitentiary, substituting State industries, giving instructive employment for prisoners in the making of articles in use in State institutions, or "generally of any article whose manufacture will involve a minimum of competition with free labor." Inmates of the penitentiary may also be employed in building other State institutions and may be contracted out to counties and cities for building roads or public buildings. There is also a new requirement in Nebraska that work shall be provided for prisoners in county and municipal jails. Texas now has a compulsory school-attendance law, and South Carolina gives local option to school districts in the matter of making attendance compulsory.

The New York Constitutional
Th3
New York
Constitution Convention in session at Albany, having reached the end of the period allotted for the introduction of amendments, has given much time during the past month to hearings on several of the more important proposals before its committees. Thus ex-President Taft appeared as an advocate of the Short Ballot, and Chief Judge Bartlett, of the Court of Appeals, and Justice Ingraham, of the Appellate Division, spoke for and against the retention of an elective judiciary. The argument for the executive appointment of judges has in past years been strongly reinforced, it must be admitted, by the experience of New York City, where judicial elections have often been mere forms, Tammany nominations having been secured in many instances through the payment of large sums to the campaign funds. In seek-

ing a way of escape from such a system, it is not strange that many able and disinterested members of the bar have reasoned that the appointment of judges by a Governor upon whom responsibility could be placed would be preferable to the existing system of partisan nominations paid for by campaign contributions. It seems probable, however, that the people of the State, as a whole, would protest strongly against the surrender of their long-established privilege of electing their own judges. The convention paused in its labors to commemorate the 700th anniversary of Magna Charta on June 15. Suitable addresses were made by President Root and Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler. It was impressed on the delegates that the greatest duty of this or any similar body is the safeguarding of human liberty. As Mr. Root pointed out, the Great Charter asserted the rights of the citizen as against his government.

*Reactionary
Trend*

So far as the temper of the convention may be judged from the action of its various committees, no radical changes are to be expected. In sharp contrast with the procedure of the Ohio Convention of 1913, the New York Convention leaders have shown a disposition to take extreme measures to check such progressive tendencies as may appear in future. Thus the Committee on Legislative Powers has made known its purpose to support an amendment that would forbid the legislature to pass workmen's compensation or minimum wage bills, or any measure limiting the hours of labor. Surely reaction could go no farther. An effort has been made before the Committee on Suffrage to put in the Constitution a prohibition, or limitation, of the direct-primary system,—a matter which, it would seem, might very well be left to the discretion of the legislature. To see the working out of tendencies directly opposite to those observable at Albany, we have only to turn to the neighboring State of Massachusetts, where the legislature has just passed and submitted to popular vote a constitutional amendment authorizing the taking of land to relieve congestion and "to provide homes for the people." This means that the State of Massachusetts is considering the policy of giving its citizens better housing under the direction of the State or the municipality. The State has already taken the lead in relieving unemployment through appropriations for work in the Forestry Department and under the Metropolitan Park Commission.

*A Civil
War
Legacy*

A decision of the United States Supreme Court, last month, ended a controversy of more than fifty years' standing between the States of Virginia and West Virginia over the apportionment of the public debt of the old State as it stood before the division took place at the time of the Civil War. It was found that West Virginia's share of the debt was \$4,215,000, with accrued interest of \$8,175,000. The basis of computation was obtained by apportioning 23½ per cent. of the total public debt of the old State to West Virginia, since it was conceded that such was her proportion of the total resources at the time of the separation. Justice Hughes, who read the opinion, held that West Virginia should pay 4 per cent. interest for the period 1861-'91, 3 per cent. thereafter, computed up to the date when the decree becomes effective, and 5 per cent. from that date until the judgment is paid. As an incident of her "readjustment" policy, many years ago, Virginia issued certificates for West Virginia's share of the bonded debt and the holders of those certificates will now receive the \$12,000,000 to be paid over by the latter State. The whole episode forms an interesting foot-note to Civil War history.

*A Mayor and
a Strike*

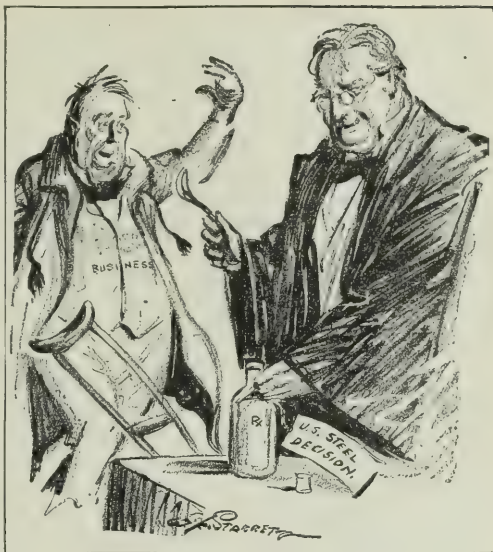
For two days last month over 14,000 employees of the surface and elevated car lines of Chicago were on strike for an increase in wages and better working conditions. Even in the preliminary stages of the dispute, Mayor Thompson appealed to both sides to accept arbitration, and after the men had been called out continued his efforts to secure an agreement. After an all-night session in his office between representatives of the labor unions and the traction companies, it was finally agreed that all the matters in dispute should be submitted to a board of arbitration consisting of three members, one to be chosen by the men, one by the traction companies, and one by the general public. Mayor Thompson himself was chosen as the third arbitrator. As soon as this agreement was signed the men on all the lines were ordered back to work, and it was agreed that if the award should be in favor of the men the increased wages and other concessions should be effective from the date of the calling of the strike. This prompt and effective action on the part of Mayor Thompson released the city of Chicago from a most unpleasant situation. The question is, Can such a crisis be averted in future?

*The Steel
Trust
Decision*

On June 3, the United States District Court of New Jersey handed down a unanimous decision, refusing the petition of the Government to dissolve the United States Steel Corporation. This effort to invoke the Sherman Anti-Trust Law against the largest single corporation in the world is so important in the history of business regulation that it is worth while to review briefly the record of the case. The suit against the Corporation was filed in the autumn of 1911 by Attorney-General Wickersham in President Taft's administration, after numerous Congressional and other investigations of the business methods and policies of the Steel Trust. In Mr. Wickersham's petition the Corporation, its subsidiaries and a score or more individuals were named as defendants. The main charges by the Government were that the Corporation was formed to monopolize the steel business; that its capitalization was about 40 per cent. water; that the absorption during the panic of 1907 of the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company pointed toward illegal monopoly; and that the acquisition of the Rockefeller Lake Superior iron mines and the Frick coking lands in Pennsylvania were further steps in establishing an impregnable monopoly. Hearings in the case were begun on May 6, 1912, and the suit was argued in October of 1914. The testimony made up fifty-six volumes, containing nearly 16,000 printed pages, and lawyers estimate that the cost of the suit is already one million dollars, divided nearly equally between the Government and the defendant United States Steel Corporation.

*A Complete
Victory for the
Corporation*

In the epoch-making decision handed down last month, the Corporation defeated all the contentions of the Government, and the four judges were unanimous in approving this result, though two of them arrived at it by steps of reasoning slightly different from those taken by their associates. This successful termination of the Corporation's defense did not come as a surprise to careful and well-informed observers of the proceedings in the case. It had been clearly proved that while in the first ten years of its existence the Corporation had increased its business some 40 per cent., its most direct competitors had grown much more rapidly. For instance, the Bethlehem Company had increased its business over 3000 per cent.; the Cambria Steel Company, 155 per cent.; the Lackawanna, 63 per cent., and the Republic



"I FEEL BETTER ALREADY!"

("Business" finds the steel decision to be a miraculous medicine)

From the *Tribune* (New York)

Iron and Steel Company, 90 per cent. Therefore, at the various hearings held in nine different cities, many of the direct competitors of the Steel Corporation had testified enthusiastically in its behalf, as did also several of its customers. In general, the New Jersey Court stated very positively and clearly that the mere absolute bigness of the defendant's business was no offense against the Sherman Law; and that in the ten years of the Corporation's existence up to the time of bringing the suit, the company's policies and methods had not produced unfair or dangerous consequences, whatever may have been the purposes in the minds of its promoters at the time it was formed. Practically the only matter of criticism that can be found in the decision relates to the committee meetings regulating prices, held after the so-called "Gary dinners"; but this practise had ceased before the suit for dissolution was brought.

*The Country
Applauds the
Decision*

The new temper of the country toward big business and repressive legislation was shown somewhat strikingly in the widespread and uniform approval of the Steel Trust's victory. It was obvious that such an event would be highly encouraging to Wall Street, and the security markets promptly responded to the news with great activity and advancing prices. But the country at large seemed to

view the decision that its greatest business concern was an honorable and legal institution with as uniform, if not with as intense, interest and approval as that which was shown in financial circles. The clean bill of health given the great Steel Corporation was the more encouraging to business men because of its coming so soon after the dismissal of the Government suit seeking to dissolve the United Shoe Machinery Company, and about the same time as the decision of the Supreme Court which favored the officials of the National Cash Register Company by refusing to review the action of the Circuit Court of Appeals, reversing their conviction. The opinion was generally held that the action of the New Jersey court in the Steel case augured well for the defense of the American Can Company and the Corn Products Company. Suits for their dissolution are the next important trust cases on the court calendars.

Will Government Appeal Steel Case? Attorney-General Gregory has been quoted as saying that the decision at Trenton in favor of the Steel Corporation would undoubtedly be appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States. There are business men who feel that on the showing of the Corporation in its successful fight a final favorable decision from the Supreme Court is a foregone conclusion, and that it would be, on the whole, an advantage to the country and to business to carry the case up for a verdict from the court of final resort. Certainly, it would seem, in view of the unanimity of the New Jersey court and of the country's strong feeling, that there is no other wise reason to continue further the prosecution of the Steel Trust and its officials. The Trust was a gigantic industrial enterprise successfully and courageously undertaken and carried out, especially in its development of our export trade in steel and its manufactures. In Mr. Taft's administration the Government brought itself to believe that the vast enterprise was offending the laws of the United States, and instituted a suit for dissolution based on a large number of specified offenses. When, after four years of legal struggle, vast and costly testimony and arguments, every judge of the regularly constituted federal court decides that the Trust is not offensive in any single instance as charged by the Government,—and when the country at large is most heartily desirous of going about its business without unnecessary interruptions,—it is difficult to understand

any official zeal for prosecuting the case further. One prefers not to call it "politics."

Pacific Steamship Lines Going Out of Business

Americans will not read with a great deal of enthusiasm the announcement that as a result of the LaFollette Seamen's Act, the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, with its thirteen splendid vessels, the Robert Dollar Line and the Great Northern Steamship *Minnesota*, the largest freight carrier under the American flag, will all, next November, go out of business as American ocean cargo carriers. The measure bearing Senator LaFollette's name embodies a number of provisions which, in the aggregate, lead the men conducting our ocean-carrying trade on the Pacific to the conclusion that it will be impossible to do business under the new law. The most important of the new restrictions is that no ship "shall be permitted to depart from any port of the United States unless she has on board a crew, not less than 75 per cent. of which in each department thereof are able to understand any orders given by the officers of such vessel." This and other clauses of the new law are supposed to be devised in the interest of American labor. The provisions are such, however, as can only be met by the subsidized Japanese steamship lines; and it is generally considered that the net result of the LaFollette measure will be the acquisition by the Japanese of a monopoly of trade between our Pacific ports and the Orient. The law goes into effect on November 2. It would require an ingenious mind to discern in the



TORPEDOING THE REMNANT OF OUR MERCHANT MARINE WITH THE LA FOLLETTE SEAMEN'S BILL
From the *Sun* (New York)

general hauling down on that date of the American flag on American merchant vessels any final advantage to labor in the United States. We have been attempting to revive our merchant marine through the Ship Registry Bill and the more liberal tariff, but the factor of sailors' wages has made operation of ocean-going ships under the American flag very costly. In the Pacific service the crews have been most largely made up of Chinese and Japanese. The restrictions prescribed by the LaFollette Law as to language, experience, conditions on shipboard, and the number of men to be employed read very well, but do not get a single job for an American able seaman, and simply tend to throttle both American labor and capital in the ocean-carrying trade.

*Medical
Research in
America*

The field of advanced medical research is one in which the State universities have thus far been able to accomplish little, but by great good fortune the University of Minnesota seems likely to take, within a year, a place in the front rank of institutions devoted to this work. The Board of Regents has accepted an offer of Drs. William J. and Charles H. Mayo, by which the resources of the Mayo Foundation, of Rochester, Minn., are at once made available to the University, thus practically securing an endowment of \$2,000,000 and unexcelled equipment for medical investigation. The arrangement is to continue for six years and at the end of that period the University will assume full control. The remarkable surgical work conducted by the brothers Mayo for many years at Rochester has attracted world-wide attention and their splendid gift to the cause of research will doubtless win the respect and coöperation of the medical profession in both hemispheres. The University of Minnesota is entering this new field under brilliant auspices. Meanwhile, plans have been made public for the creation of a great center of medical learning at New York City through an alliance between the Presbyterian Hospital and Columbia University, with the erection of hospital and college buildings. The cost of the project is estimated at over \$16,000,000 and it will give to America a seat of medical education comparable with those at Paris, Vienna, and Berlin.

*Educating
China in
Medicine*

The Rockefeller Foundation, of New York, is about to launch a project that far excels in magnitude any earlier philanthropies, vast as others have been. It is attempting nothing less than the medical regeneration of a nation. Starting with the Union Medical College, at Peking, as a nucleus, the Foundation proposes to plant a system of medical colleges and hospitals throughout China under the management of an American as resident director (Dr. Roger S. Greene). Appropriations will be made to certain schools already in existence and others will be acquired by the Foundation. Best of all, modern surgical and medical methods will be introduced in those regions where there are now no facilities whatever for the scientific treatment of disease. This magazine has more than once alluded to the generous gifts of the General Education Board to the Johns Hopkins University and other institutions in the interest of medical research in this country.

*A Wonderful
Crop Year Now
Seems Certain*

The Government forecast of the year's crops, based on reports from every section of the country on conditions as of June 1, gives a total wheat crop for 1915 of 950,000,000 bushels, exceeding the record-breaking yield of last year by 59,000,000 bushels. The outlook for corn and oats, too, is highly encouraging. The estimate for the yield of oats is the largest on record, 1,288,000,000 bushels, and, though there is no official forecast as yet of the corn crop, all private estimates agree that there is an increase of area over the planting of last year, which produced the largest crop in history; and that prospects are excellent everywhere except in limited areas in Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and Oklahoma.

*Metals
at War
Prices*

If it is difficult to understand, in the face of Europe's devastating war, the prevailing optimistic mood of Americans as to business conditions immediately before us, perhaps the most satisfying explanation is suggested by the fact noted in the preceding paragraph that for a second year our farms are producing unprecedentedly bountiful crops, together with the scarcely less important fact that the demands of the warring countries for metals, especially copper, lead, and zinc, will have us selling to Europe the products of our mines, too, at war prices. By the middle of June, copper metal, which was selling for only a little over 11 cents per pound last August, was bringing 20½ cents, with the demand unsatisfied. Lead was selling in huge quantities at the highest price in thirty years, and zinc was in such demand, at phenomenal war prices, that the brassmakers were puzzled to obtain adequate supplies.



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

AN ART EXHIBITION IN THE FRENCH CAPITAL

(The famous exhibitions of paintings have not been abandoned in Paris. President Poincaré is here shown at the formal opening of the spring Salon. Many of the exhibits are the work of artists now at the front, and a number were actually made on the battlefields and in the trenches)



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

CONSTRUCTING A SUBWAY IN THE GERMAN CAPITAL

(Returning travelers have maintained that the every-day life of Berlin bears little evidence of the great war going on all around the empire. The illustration shows that civic improvements have not been suspended, although there is said to be a scarcity of skilled labor)

ART AND INDUSTRY CONTINUE, AWAY FROM THE BATTLE LINES

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From May 21 to June 19, 1915)

The Last Part of May

May 21.—The Italian Senate ratifies, by vote of 262 to 2, the action of the Chamber of Deputies in conferring upon the cabinet full power to make war.

May 22.—King Victor Emmanuel, of Italy, sanctions the law conferring extraordinary powers upon the cabinet, and issues a decree ordering full mobilization of the army and navy.

May 23.—Italy formally declares that a state of war with Austria-Hungary will exist from May 24.

May 24.—Both Austria and Italy open hostilities; Austrian warships and aeroplanes bombard the arsenal at Venice and other places on the Adriatic Coast, while Italian troops cross the border into Austria at several points.

The Austro-German armies under General von Mackensen resume their offensive north of Przemyśl, after a lull of several days, and report the capture of 21,000 Russians.

May 25.—The personnel of the new British coalition cabinet is announced; 12 are Liberals, 8 Unionists, 1 Laborite, and 1 non-partisan.

The British battleship *Triumph* is torpedoed and sunk by a German submarine in the Dardanelles, while supporting troops on the Gallipoli Peninsula.

The American freight steamer *Nebraskan*, outward bound from Liverpool, is seriously damaged by a torpedo or mine off the south coast of Ireland, but is able to return to port.

May 27.—The British battleship *Majestic* is torpedoed and sunk by a submarine in the Dardanelles while supporting the army.

The *Princess Irene*, a British auxiliary warship, is blown to pieces while at anchor at the mouth of the Thames, the explosion being apparently internal; only one man survives, out of 425.

Admiral Sir Henry Bradwardine Jackson (Chief of Staff of the British Navy) is appointed First Sea Lord of the Admiralty, succeeding Admiral Lord Fisher, who resigned.

Italian troops cross the Isonzo River, the great natural barrier protecting Trieste from a land attack.

May 28.—Germany replies to the American note regarding submarine warfare against merchant ships; the reply seeks to establish a common basis of fact regarding the status of the *Lusitania*, and reserves final statement of the German position until an answer is received.

May 31.—Germany officially acknowledges that the American steamer *Gulflight* was sunk (on May 1) by a German submarine whose commander did not see the American flag until the order to fire had been given.

The British Admiralty reports that 130 British merchant ships have been sunk since the beginning of the war,—56 by enemy cruisers, 12 by mines, and 62 by submarines.

Italian and Austrian reports indicate that the Italian invasion of the Trentino is proceeding from the east, south, and west, and has reached a point within ten miles of Trent itself.

Several German airships drop bombs in the East End of London, with much property damage but few casualties.

The First Week of June

June 2.—The German General Staff reports that during May more than 300,000 Russians were



KING VICTOR EMMANUEL OF ITALY

(The King is constantly at the front with his troops. If the nature of the ground does not permit the use of his automobile, he travels on horseback or—in the mountainous districts—on foot. He is an enthusiastic Alpinist)

made prisoners by Austrian and German armies (mostly in the Galicia campaign).

June 3.—The continued Austro-German offensive in Galicia results in the recapture of the Austrian stronghold of Przemyśl (surrendered to the Russians on March 22), the Russian army retreating toward Lemberg; it is freely asserted that the Russians lack ammunition.

June 5.—A naval engagement is fought in the Baltic Sea, near the Gulf of Riga, with losses of small ships by both Russians and Germans.



VON MACKENSEN, GERMANY'S LATEST HERO

(Field-Marshal August von Mackensen was one of Hindenburg's lieutenants in campaigns in East Prussia and northern Poland, which resulted so disastrously to the Russians. To him alone, however, the official German reports have given credit for the masterful leadership of great Austro-German armies which have relieved Hungary and swept the Russians almost completely out of Austrian Galicia and back into their own territory)

The Second Week of June

June 6.—Captain Herzing, of the German submarine *U 51*, relates at Constantinople how his vessel made the journey from Wilhelmshaven to the Dardanelles (more than 3000 miles) in 42 days, at the end of which he sank the British battleships *Majestic* and *Triumph*.

June 6.—German airships carry out a night attack on the northeast coast of England, dropping bombs and causing the death of twenty-four persons.

June 7.—A British aviator (Reginald A. J. Warneford) attacks a German Zeppelin airship at a height of 6000 feet, between Brussels and Ghent, and destroys it with bombs.

June 8.—The American Secretary of State, William J. Bryan, resigns his office rather than join in sending to Germany the second note of protest, prepared by President Wilson, relating to submarine attacks without warning on merchant ships of American ownership or carrying American passengers.

An Italian airship is destroyed after an attack on Fiume; Austria claims that an armed aeroplane vanquished it, while Italy maintains that it ran short of fuel and was self-destructed.

June 9.—The United States replies to Germany's note of May 28, maintaining that the sinking of passenger ships by German submarines, without

warning, violates principles of humanity and of law; it asks for assurances that measures will be adopted to safeguard American lives and American ships.

Announcement is made by Premier Asquith that casualties in the British armies on the Continent and in the Mediterranean, from the beginning of the war to the end of May, total 50,342 killed, 153,980 wounded, and 53,747 missing.

The British Admiralty announces that another German submarine [the *U 14*] has been sunk, the crew being rescued.

A German official statement announces the occupation of Stanislaw, in Galicia south of Lemberg.

Italian troops, after several days of fighting, occupy Monfalcone, thereby severing one of two railway lines running to Trieste.

June 10.—The German army south of Lemberg suffers a temporary check by the Russians, and is forced back across the lower Dniester with heavy losses.

Two British torpedo-boats are sunk by a German submarine off the east coast of England.

The Russian General Staff reports successful operations on a vast scale against Turkish armies in the Caucasus.

June 11.—Italian troops complete their occupation of Gradisca, north of Monfalcone.

The Third Week of June

June 13.—The German armies in Galicia, under General von Mackensen, renew their offensive movement north of the point where recently checked, and take Russian positions along a front of 43 miles.

June 15.—The British House of Commons votes \$1,250,000,000 for war expenditures (bringing the total war appropriations up to \$4,310,000,000); Premier Asquith states that the war is now costing Great Britain \$13,000,000 a day.

A German Zeppelin airship makes a second night raid on the northeast coast of England, sixteen persons being killed by bombs.

French aviators drop bombs on Karlsruhe, Germany, in retaliation for the bombardment by Germans of French and English coast towns.

June 16.—A French offensive, supported by the use of nearly 300,000 shells by artillery, carries German trenches near Souchez and at other points north of Arras.

An official Austrian report claims the capture of 122,400 Russians between June 1 and June 15, besides many cannon and machine-guns.

June 17.—The Italian Minister of Marine announces that the Italian submarine *Medusa* has been torpedoed and sunk by an Austrian submarine, both vessels being on the surface.

Lieutenant Warneford, the British aviator who won fame by destroying a Zeppelin airship on June 7, loses his life during a test flight with an American correspondent near Paris.

June 18.—Germany reports that the Austro-German drive in Galicia has penetrated Russian territory, at Tarnograd.

Russia issues a detailed statement regarding the withdrawal in Galicia before superior numbers, and maintaining that in a single sector, between May 29 and June 15, the Austro-German losses were more than 120,000 men.



THE COURSE OF AN ILLUMINATED AEROPLANE MAKING EXHIBITION FLIGHTS AT NIGHT

(This unusual picture is a photographic record of a night flight by Art Smith, the Exposition aviator at San Francisco. The horizontal lines show the aviator's straight flights, the abrupt endings indicating where he temporarily shut off the power and the lights. The vertical spirals mark the course of the "looping the loop" feats. The long exposure rendered feasible by night photography made it possible to record the whole flight on a single negative)

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From May 21 to June 19, 1915)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

May 22.—A jury at Syracuse returns a verdict for Colonel Roosevelt, in the suit for libel brought by William Barnes, Jr., the Republican leader.

May 26.—The United States Court of Customs Appeals holds that the 5 per cent. tariff discount on goods imported in American bottoms must apply also to goods imported in ships of countries having treaties calling for "favored nation" treatment; the decision, if upheld, will reduce tariff revenues by more than \$10,000,000 a year.

June 1.—Charles E. Sebastian (Chief of Police) is elected Mayor of Los Angeles.

June 3.—The United States Steel Corporation is held to be a lawful enterprise by the United States Circuit Court for New Jersey, and the Government's plea for dissolution of the combination (filed in October, 1911) is denied.

June 7.—Governor Brumbaugh signs bills passed by the Pennsylvania legislature, providing workmen's compensation and State insurance.

June 8.—William J. Bryan resigns the office of Secretary of State, being out of agreement with President Wilson's diplomatic policy toward Germany.

June 9.—The President designates Robert Lansing (Counselor for the State Department) to perform the duties of Secretary of State.

June 14.—The United States Supreme Court decides that West Virginia must assume a share of the public debt of Virginia, from which it separated in 1861; the amount involved is \$12,393,929, two-thirds being accrued interest. . . . In the National Cash Register case, the Supreme Court denies the Government's petition to review the decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals, which reversed criminal convictions of officials, obtained in a lower court.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

May 25.—The British Liberal ministry under Premier Asquith is reorganized on a coalition basis; ex-Premier Balfour, Mr. Bonar Law, six other Unionists, and a Laborite accept portfolios.

May 29.—Theophile Braga is elected President of Portugal by the National Assembly, succeeding Manuel de Arriaga, who resigned.

June 1.—The Japanese House approves the Government's military program, increasing the standing army by 24,000 men.

June 5.—The new Danish constitution is signed



ADMIRAL SIR HENRY BRADWARDINE JACKSON

(Who late in May was appointed First Sea Lord of the British Admiralty,—in active command of the British navy. Lord Fisher had resigned from the post, it is said, owing to friction with the executive head, Mr. Winston Churchill. Mr. Churchill in turn has been succeeded by Mr. Balfour)

by King Christian, and goes into effect; it reduces the political power of landholders and extends the suffrage to women.

June 6.—General Obregon, Carranza's military leader in Mexico, reports a decisive defeat of forces under Generals Villa and Angeles, in a five-days battle at Leon, northwest of Mexico City.

June 9.—The Mexican Constitutionalist Convention, in session at Mexico City, deposes Provisional President Garza and appoints Francisco Lagos Chazaro as his successor.

June 13.—Elections held throughout Greece result in a decided majority for the supporters of ex-Premier Venizelos, as against the followers of Premier Gounaris.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

May 24.—A Pan-American Financial Conference meets at Washington, to discuss means for promoting closer business relations among the Central and South American republics and the United States; important delegates from all the countries are present.

May 25.—Representatives of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, at Buenos Aires, sign a treaty designed to improve their political relations.

June 2.—President Wilson issues a statement calling upon the factions in Mexico to act together promptly for the relief of their country, else the United States will employ means to help Mexico save herself.

June 6.—Representatives of Russia, China, and Mongolia (according to a Peking report) conclude an agreement fixing the status of Mongolia, China retaining nominal suzerainty. . . . It is reported in Sweden that a treaty with Russia has been ratified by both countries, affirming mutual financial, commercial, and industrial interests.

June 16.—American warships are ordered to Tobari Bay, on the Pacific Coast of Mexico, to land marines and sailors, if necessary, to protect Americans menaced by marauding Yaqui Indians.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

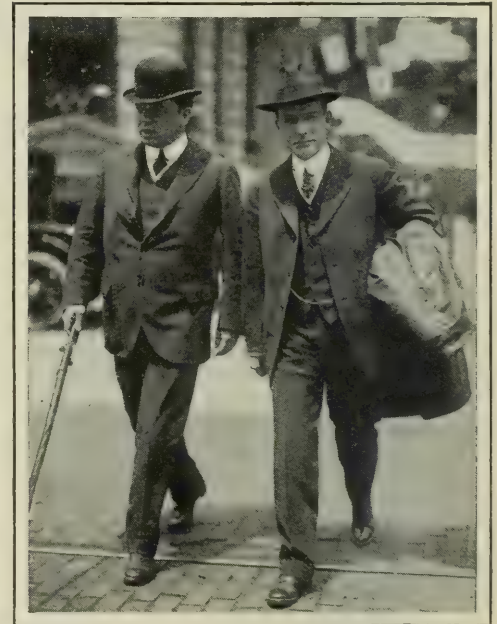
May 22.—The most disastrous wreck in the history of British railways occurs near Carlisle, England, resulting in the death of more than 150 persons (mostly soldiers).

May 23.—Thomas A. Edison announces the completion of a device, known as the telescribe, which will record telephone conversations.

May 26.—The Holland-American liner *Ryndam* is seriously damaged by colliding with a freight steamer in a fog off Nantucket; the passengers and some of the crew are transferred to the battleship *South Carolina*.

May 31.—In an automobile race at Indianapolis, Ralph de Palma drives a Mercedes car 500 miles at the rate of 89.8 miles an hour, more than seven miles faster than the previous record.

June 5.—A report from Donald B. MacMillan, in the Arctic regions, declares that Crocker Land is merely a mirage.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

MR. JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR. (AT THE RIGHT),
AND MR. F. W. MACKENZIE KING

(A snapshot taken in Washington, late in May, when they gave testimony regarding American labor matters before the Industrial Relations Commission. Mr. Mackenzie King was formerly Commissioner of Labor in Canada, and is now head of the Rockefeller Foundation's industrial research bureau)

June 12.—Dr. Herman C. Bumpus is inaugurated president of Tufts College.

June 14.—Fourteen thousand motormen and conductors on the surface and elevated railways of Chicago go on strike for higher pay, effecting a complete tie-up of the transportation system.

June 16.—The Chicago street-railway strike is ended through the efforts of Mayor Thompson; the differences will be settled by arbitration.

June 18.—The open golf championship of the United States is won by Jerome D. Travers, an amateur. . . . Two passengers are killed by the fall of an aeroplane near Boston, the aviator being seriously injured.

June 19.—The superdreadnought battleship *Arizona* is launched at the New York Navy Yard.

OBITUARY

May 23.—Pierre Martin, the French inventor of a steel-making process in world-wide use.

May 25.—Emlin McClain, former Chief Justice of the Iowa Supreme Court, 64. . . . Rev. William Mansfield Groton, dean of the Philadelphia Divinity School, 65.

May 26.—Thomas Jefferson Brown, Chief Justice of the Texas Supreme Court, 79. . . . George M. Seiders, a prominent Maine lawyer and former Attorney-General, 71.

May 27.—Judge Robert T. Daniel, of Georgia, Sovereign Grand Sire of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, 57. . . . Ransford D. Bucknam (Bucknam Pacha), the American sailor who re-organized the Turkish Navy, 46.

May 28.—Samuel Dickson, a distinguished Philadelphia lawyer, 78.

May 29.—John Griffith McCullough, former Governor of Vermont, 79. . . . John E. Humphries, Judge of the Superior Court of Washington, 63. . . . James William Pattison, the painter and art lecturer of Chicago, 71.

May 30.—Clarence Walker Seamans, the type-writer manufacturer, 61.

May 31.—John W. Alexander, the artist, 58. . . . George D. Barnard, the St. Louis merchant and philanthropist, 69. . . . Victor Albert George Villiers, Earl of Jersey, 70.

June 1.—Eliot Gregory, a New York portrait painter and author, 60.

June 2.—Sir Arthur Herbert Church, a noted English chemist, 81. . . . Benjamin Franklin Dutton, said to have originated the department-store idea, in Massachusetts, 83.

June 3.—Charles F. Libby, of Portland, Me., ex-president of the American Bar Association, 71. . . . Dr. Samuel Baldwin Ward, an eminent physician of Albany, N. Y., 73. . . . DeWitt Clinton Blair, formerly a prominent New York banker, 82.

June 4.—Camille Pelletan, former Minister of Marine in France.

June 6.—Rev. Jesse B. Thomas, D.D., a prominent Baptist clergyman of Brooklyn, 82.

June 7.—Adm. Marie Jacques Charles Aubert, Chief of the General Staff of the French Navy, 67.

June 8.—Prof. Joseph Winter, superintendent of the German Free Schools in the United States, 59.



THE LATE JOHN W. ALEXANDER, ARTIST

(Mr. Alexander was one of America's most eminent artists, particularly noted for portrait painting. During recent years he had given much of his time to public affairs in New York City, and at the time of his death was president of the National Academy of Design)

June 10.—Gen. Edward L. Molineux, a prominent Civil War veteran of Brooklyn, 82. . . . Harvey B. Ferguson, former Congressman from New Mexico, 67. . . . Dr. Henry James, of Vermont, in charge of surgeons at the Battle of Gettysburg, 83.

June 11.—Alfred Theodore Schauffler, treasurer of Robert College, Constantinople, and former Superintendent of Schools in New York City, 74.

June 13.—Col. Charles Edward Woodruff, U.S.A., retired, authority on military sanitation and on neurasthenia, 55.

June 14.—Dr. John H. McCollom, professor-emeritus of contagious diseases at the Harvard Medical School, 72.

June 15.—Brig.-Gen. Charles Julius Allen, U.S.A., retired, 75. . . . Sir Nathaniel Barnaby, a British authority on naval designing, 86. . . . Grand Duke Constantine Constantinovitch of Russia, president of the Imperial Academy of Sciences and head of the department of military schools, 57.

June 17.—Henry Beach Needham, a well-known special writer for magazines, 43.

June 18.—Albert Plaut, a prominent New York drug manufacturer, 58.

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARTOONS



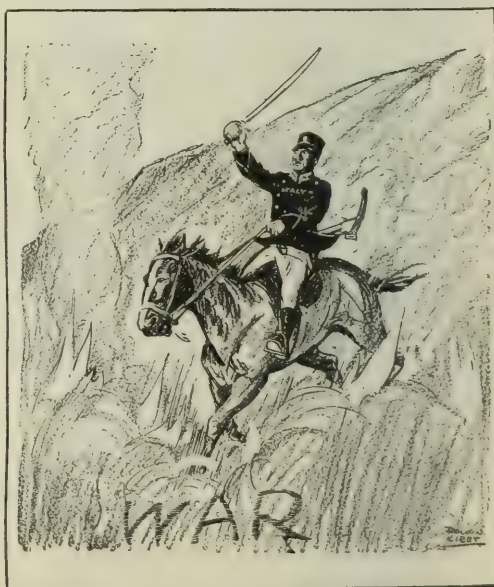
ITALY, TO THE GERMAN CHANCELLOR BETHMANN-HOLLWEG: "YOU TREATED THE BELGIAN NEUTRALITY AGREEMENT AS A SCRAP OF WASTE PAPER. I DO THE SAME WITH THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE AGREEMENT"

From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)



BLUEBEARD'S WIFE—Sister Ann, Sister Ann, what do you see?

SISTER ANN—I see Italy at last coming to release us.
From the *Star* (Montreal)



ITALY GOES OVER THE BRINK

From the *World* (New York)

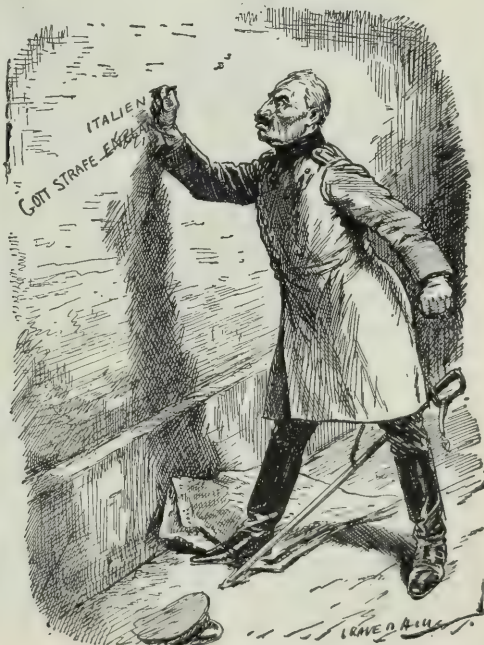


THE EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH, AS THE NEW SAMSON, PULLING DOWN THE PILLARS OF THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN TEMPLE—(AN ITALIAN VIEW)
From *Il Fischietto* (Turin)

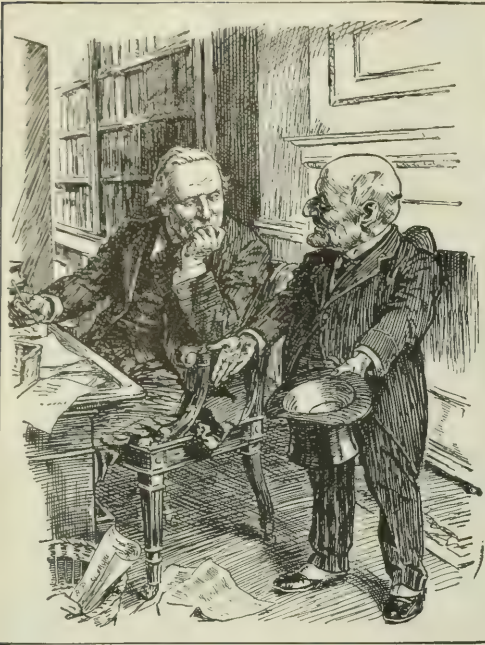


THE TURKS OFFER STOUT RESISTANCE TO THE ALLIES AT THE DARDANEELLES

TURKEY: "Back; the keeping of this gate will remain in the same old hands!"
From *Ulk* © (Berlin)



ON WITH THE NEW HATE
From *Punch* (London)



WANTED, A LEAD

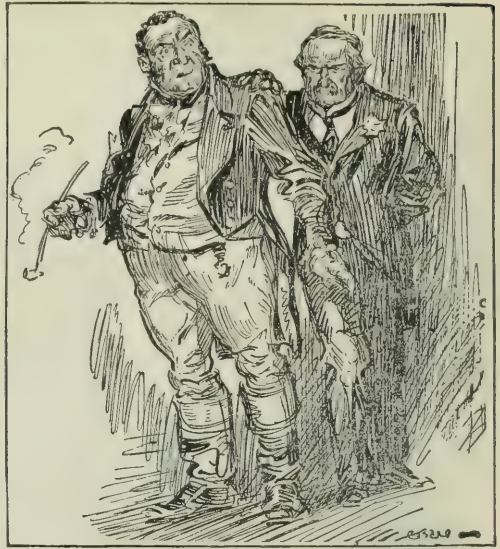
MR. PUNCH (to the Prime Minister): "You can get all the willing service you need, Sir, if you'll only organize it. Tell each man of us what is wanted of him, and he'll do it."

From *Punch* (London)



THE MAN BEHIND

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



LLOYD GEORGE: "ENGLAND EXPECTS—"
(Mr. Lloyd George has been very effective in stirring up England to a more sturdy support of the war)
From the *Sun* (New York)



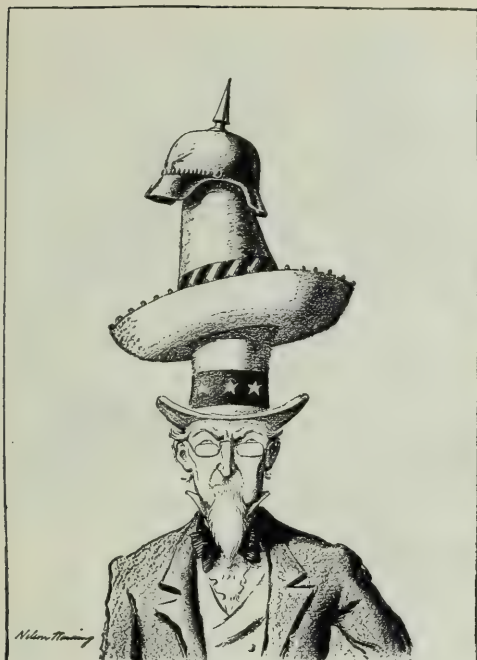
SWAPPING HORSES WHILE CROSSING THE STREAM,
OR JOHN BULL CHANGING CABINETS IN WAR TIME
From the *World* (New York)



© 1915, by John T. McCutcheon
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

IF WE STAY OUT OF THE EUROPEAN WAR

THE WAR IN TERMS OF



ON HIS MIND

(Both Germany and Mexico have been heavily pressing upon Uncle Sam's attention lately)

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



A DANGEROUS TRAVELING COMPANION

(The sensible American tourist decides not to travel on the same ship with a cargo of ammunition)

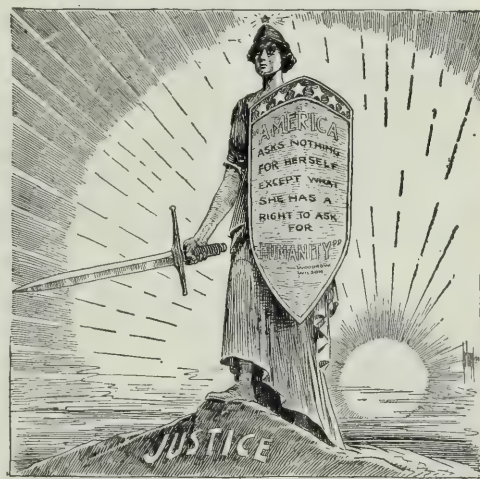
From the *Tribune* (Los Angeles)



THE COMMON CAUSE

(Uncle Sam pleads for humanity in the court of the neutral nations)

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



"HOW FIRM A FOUNDATION"

(America's unselfish purpose as interpreted by President Wilson)

From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)

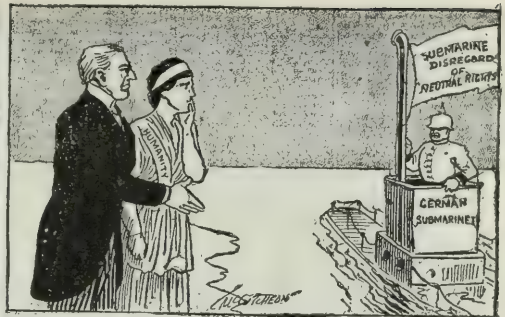


DOLLARS AND CENTS

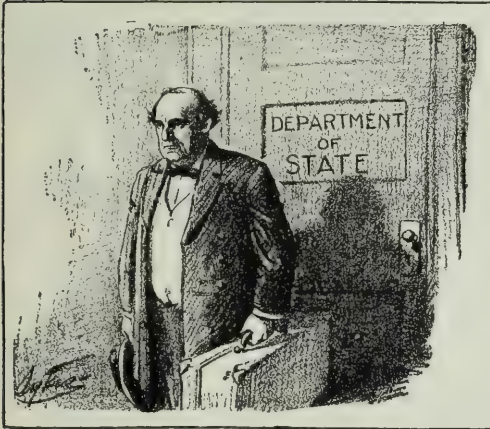
IF WE ARE DRAWN INTO THE EUROPEAN WAR



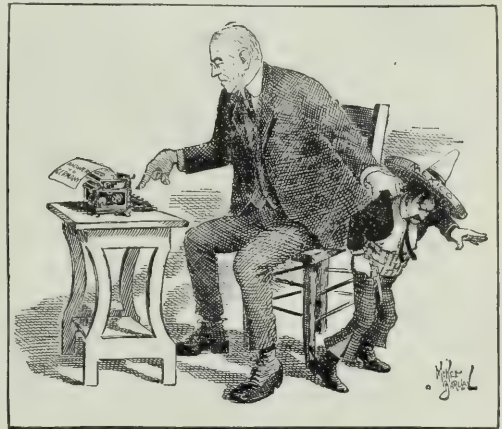
© 1915, by John T. McCutcheon



PRESIDENT WILSON THE SPOKESMAN OF HUMANITY
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



BUT HE [BRYAN] FOLLOWED HIS CONSCIENCE
(Appropos of Mr. Bryan's resignation as Secretary of State) From the *Evening Ledger* (Philadelphia)



WILSON, OUR AMBIDEXTROUS DIPLOMAT, DEALING
WITH GERMANY AND MEXICO AT THE SAME TIME
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



SWITZERLAND, THE BUFFER STATE, AN ISLAND OF
NERVOUS NEUTRALITY, IN A TURBULENT SEA OF
WAR. From the *Star* (Washington, D. C.)



NOT LACK OF NUMBERS, BUT LACK OF PREPARATION
SEEMS TO HAVE BEEN THE CAUSE OF RUSSIA'S
DEFEAT AT PRZEMYSL. From the *Sun* (New York)

FOUR WAR FRONTS IN JUNE

AND SOME HISTORICAL COMPARISONS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. NAPOLEONIC MEMORIES

IN the month that saw the hundredth anniversary of Waterloo the attention of the world was naturally and inevitably turned to the parallel between the situation in the Europe of 1915 and that of the first years of the preceding century.

The coming of Italy into the struggle in the last days of May contributed much to making this parallel. In sum Italy had enlisted because Austria had declined to cede to her the *Italia irredenta*. Men now recalled that in 1813, when Napoleon was fighting desperately but still successfully his war on the two fronts,—in Spain and in Germany,—when he had opened the 1813 campaign with victories at Lützen and Bautzen, Austria, still neutral, had demanded the Illyrian provinces as the price of neutrality, and these Illyrian provinces included Trieste, Fiume, Dalmatia.

Like Francis Joseph, Napoleon had declined to make the sacrifice and in a few months Leipsic, the great "Battle of the Nations," where Prussians, Austrians, Swedes, Russians stood in line against the French Emperor, put an end to the Napoleonic dream of world empire,—to "world power," as Bernhardt has put it,—marked the beginning of that swift downfall that was in but a brief time to come at Fontainebleau.

With the arrival of Italy on the battle-lines of what was now, at least, the Grand Alliance this situation of 1915 fairly reproduced that of 1813. Napoleon's victories in eastern Germany were but lesser profit compared with Mackensen's sweep through Galicia, his recapture of Przemyśl as great a triumph as Napoleon's similar success at Dresden. But Napoleon defeated his foes only to face new armies,—a continent in arms,—and who could longer doubt that Germany, with her crippled Austrian ally, was to face similar odds?

Russia, Great Britain, France, Serbia, and now Italy were in the field. In the Balkans the battle for neutrality, lost at Rome by Prince von Bülow, was now being waged at

Bucharest, at Athens, at Sofia. But in the Rumanian and Greek capitals mobs are already demonstrating in favor of war. "The street" was shouting as it had spoken decisively in Rome and Milan. For the Rumanians the collapse of Austria promised territorial gains nowhere else obtainable, promised the liberation of millions of "Romans" in Transylvania, Bukowina, and Banat. For Greece the ancient Greek colonies of Asia Minor, the Hellenic outposts which had provoked the Persian wars of antiquity, beckoned to a new Greece, and Smyrna had become the prize of Greek intervention.

Go back to 1813 in the hours before Austria entered and it is possible to see how Europe then felt. Napoleon was still the unconquerable captain. The Russian disaster had but incidentally shaken the legend of French invincibility which had filled the continent for twenty years. The subsequent victory of Dresden was one more in the sequence which began in far-off Valmy two decades before. From Moscow to Madrid, from Calais to the Holy Land, the soldier of the Revolution and the Empire had marched from victory to victory.

Yet great as was the tradition of victory, splendid as was Napoleon's genius,—and his campaign of 1814 was perhaps his finest,—the uprising of 1813, the coalition of Europe against France, had already doomed the Napoleonic régime. To-day the coalition against Germany, Austria, and Turkey is far more colossal than that which overthrew Bonaparte. Sea-power, the ammunition factories, and the supplies of neutral nations, added to those of British and French colonies, the resources of Africa, Asia, Australia, and the Americas, the wealth in money and of men at the command of Paris, Petrograd, and London, give to the foes of the Teutonic Empires an advantage which Napoleon's conquerors lacked.

It would be idle to attempt to press the parallel home. German spirit is far more united, determined, confident in 1915 than French in 1813 or 1815. No one could believe that the arrival of an Allied army in

a German city would have the consequences that followed the coming of the British to Bordeaux in 1814. No internal revolution yet threatened in Germany, and it was French weariness of war that finally doomed Napoleon. Yet, with the memories of Waterloo in all men's minds, neutral observers looked out upon a Europe again in battle array from the Urals to the Channel, from the Baltic to the Adriatic, and marvelled at the resemblances, perhaps drew hasty conclusions from the superficial likeness between the conditions in the two centuries.

II. ITALY'S STRATEGY

Another Napoleonic tradition was stirred by the physical circumstances of the Italian military problem. In 1797 Napoleon, having won at Lodi, Arcola, Rivoli, having taken Mantua and Verona, had precisely the same situation to deal with that faced Italian high command in 1915. In the Tyrol from Botzen to the Julian Alps and in the Venetian Plains from the Julian Alps to the Adriatic behind the Tagliamento an Austrian army stood.

Napoleon solved the problem thus: Into the Tyrol he sent Massena, through the Julian Alps by Pontebba from the Friulian district he sent Joubert. He broke the Austrian lines by forcing a crossing of the Tagliamento. His divided army reunited at Klagenfurth, pressed east and defeated the Austrians at Neumarkt and Unzmarkt. His advance-guard had reached the summit of the Semmering Pass and looked down at the distant hills about Vienna when Austria cried for terms and the Peace of Campo Formio terminated the conflict.

Looking at the opening moves of the Italian armies it will be seen that they followed the Napoleonic tradition. Their effort, too, was directed at these similar Austrian objectives, the Tyrol, the Julian and Carnic Alps, and at the Austrian position behind the Isonzo, not the Tagliamento, that is, a few miles to the east but in the same relative position. Modern fortifications had, however, greatly complicated the problem. Napoleon had to deal with Austrian fortresses on the Italian Plain. Mantua, Verona, Peschiera, Legnago, the famous Quadrilateral of later days, had first to be reduced, since he had trouble with them before he set out on his first march towards Vienna. But Italy had to deal with the great modern fortresses on the mountains, with Trent and its outlying forts.

It was, moreover, of prime necessity to Italy that she should remove these Austrian chains upon her own province before Germany began to call back her masses from Galicia and send them south into Italy. Unless she could close the Trent gateway, the Adige Valley, to German advance all her progress in the Julian Alps and beyond the Isonzo would be as empty as the French foray into Alsace-Lorraine in August, 1914, and strategically much the same sort of thing. For, as a glance at the map will show, German troops descending by the Brenner Pass on to the Adige Valley would be in the same relative position to Italian masses on the Isonzo as were the Germans coming south from Belgium to the French masses between Metz and Strassburg and east of Belfort.

In the opening days, therefore, Italy sent one great army against the Trentino, attacking from the south along Lago di Garda and up the Adige Valley, from the east through the Dolomites, from the Ampezzo to the Brenta valleys, and from the west on the pass from Stebio Pass to Lago di Garda, west of Riva. Here the object was to close the open door into the Po Valley which has been the chief grievance of Italy against Austria since 1866.

A second force, presumably smaller, was sent from the Friulian district by Pontebba toward the upper Drave Valley,—the route of Joubert in 1797,—to cut the communications between Vienna and the Trentino, to close the Pusterthal, a long corridor north of the Julian and Carnic Alps, leading parallel to the Italian frontier. This, too, was a defensive-offensive, designed to cut railway lines near highways and protect Italy from the eventual offensive of Germany.

Finally a third army, following the route of Napoleon himself, pushed east from the Venetian province, passed the frontier, and presently began to press over the Isonzo River, which bars the entrance into Austria from the Julian Alps to the Adriatic. Tolmino, Plova, Gradisca, Sagretto, Montfalcone, each commanding crossings of the river, were taken in turn and the Italian army is, as these lines are written, on June 15, approaching Gorizia, the first strong defensive position of the Austrians. At Montfalcone the extreme Italian right is barely twenty miles from Trieste. The object of the operation now going on in this section is first to isolate and then to capture Trieste.

But in all sections the Italians have only just begun to touch Austrian positions pre-



From the Times (New York)

THE ITALIAN-AUSTRIAN WAR AREA

(The above map includes all the immediate war zone of the Italian-Austrian campaigns in the north of Italy and southwestern Austria. The numbers 1 to 6 in the map locate the early clashes with the Austrians as the three Italian forces began their advance northward and northeastward late in May) (See Mr. Simonds' text on opposite page)

pared in advance. The June operations so far have been mere preliminaries; they have disclosed the objectives of Italian operations,—they have shown nothing of Austro-German intentions and nothing of real importance has yet happened.

III. PRZEMYSL "REDEEMED"

In late May the world, watching the marvelous German offensive in Galicia, wondered whether Russian strength, plainly shattered, would avail to check the armies of Mackensen at the San. So it had wondered in August whether French forces would halt the victorious Germans on the Rheims-La Fere-Laon barrier line. Like the French, the Russians failed, and Przemyśl, a few weeks before the prize of Russian arms, passed to the Austro-German armies after a brief struggle. In June the problem became Lemberg instead of Przemyśl, and as these lines are written, on June 15, the possibility of the fall of Lemberg is quite as portentous as was that of Przemyśl a month ago.

The story of the retaking of Przemyśl is briefly told. Into Central Galicia the Teu-

tonic allies flowed along three lines of railways. On the Lemberg-Cracow road, the main trunk line of Galicia, Mackensen's masses came east, forcing the San about Jaroslav and moving on north of Przemyśl and reaching for the Lemberg railway line in the rear of the fortress. A second army came through the Carpathians, forced the Russian frontier at Stryz, and endeavored to join hands with the first and thus invest Przemyśl. A third army came east along the railway line that follows the foothills of the Carpathians on the Galician side, and struck straight at Przemyśl. In sum, the Russian garrison was menaced by direct attack and its communications threatened by two great armies, closing pincers-like upon its rear.

The fact that before it surrendered the Austrian garrison in Przemyśl had done its work of destruction well was disclosed by the rapidity with which German regiments stormed the dismantled forts that had held Russian armies back for so many months. Some of the forts having fallen and the line of retreat having been imperiled, the Russians evacuated the city. They drew out in good order, apparently taking all their guns and



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

A FORCE OF THE PICTURESQUE ITALIAN CYCLIST SOLDIERS ON ACTIVE DUTY



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

AN OUTPOST CAMP OF ITALIAN ALPINISTS, WITH A TYPICAL MOUNTAIN BACKGROUND, ON THE NORTHERN BORDER OF ITALY

supplies with them, for neither Berlin nor Vienna made any claim of captures in men or munitions.

Could the Germans then repeat at Lemberg the successes at Tarnow and Przemyśl?—this was the question of mid-June. At this time one Teutonic army was pointing east along the Przemyśl-Lemberg Railway, another north along the Lemberg-Budapest lines, which cross the Carpathians by the Uzok and Beskid Passes. A third was coming northwest out of Bukowina. The first two reached Muschiaska, thirty-odd miles west of Lemberg, the others were forcing a passage of the Dniester fifty miles to the southeast. So far Austro-German efforts had not slackened.

But it was apparent now that Russian resistance had stiffened. Petrograd reported, Berlin and Vienna conceded incidental Russian successes. There was a plain and natural suggestion that the Germans were now drawing off corps to meet the rapidly mounting Italian menace. Yet, at the time this review is written Lemberg remains in front and the Austro-German drive is not yet checked; although the Russians made a determined stand at Grodek.

In the House of Commons British statesmen explained the German victory as due to a tremendous supremacy in artillery and in ammunition. Upon the Russians, at the Dunajec, it was asserted there had broken a storm of shell fire hitherto unequalled in the Great War. German superiority in ammunition in all fields was regretfully conceded, and British members frankly averred that had this superiority rested with the British in Flanders the German battle-line would long ago have receded to the Meuse and the Dyle.

But however explicable, the German success in Galicia had already deprived the Russians of the fruits of the autumn and winter campaigns. They were now back where they had started in September. The Hungarian frontier was cleared; Cracow was secure; a territory as large as Belgium had been reclaimed; 300,000 Russian prisoners, accepting Berlin claims, had been taken; Russia had suffered one more disaster, the greatest of the war for her, despite the enormous losses of Tannenberg, Lodz, and the Mazurian Lakes. A new military genius had appeared in Mackensen, who shone with Hindenberg at Lodz, but now alone in Galicia, and who enjoyed a reputation second to none in the war, earned by the greatest campaign that had yet been fought.

IV. IN THE BALKANS

The entrance of Italy into the Great War gave new interest to the Balkan situation. But it also disclosed the fact that, despite popular agitation, the decision in Bucharest, in Athens, in Sofia, was still contingent upon Allied success at the Dardanelles rather than in Rome. For the Rumanians, Russian reverses in Galicia, Austrian successes on the Pruth, just across their own frontier, made a powerful deterrent. From Bucharest there came no sign of immediate action. Diplomats whispered that King Charles, before his death, had bound his nation to Vienna and Berlin by definite treaty. But self-interest rather than a "scrap of paper" clearly influenced Rumanian statesmen, whose sovereign was a Hohenzollern.

Could the Allied influences at Bucharest prevail, an army of 500,000 well-trained and well-equipped troops would be brought into action. Rumanian invasion of Transylvania and Bukowina would do much to nullify Mackensen's triumph in Galicia. That Rumania would eventually enlist, the world now believed, but not to aid the Allies at her own expense,—rather to harvest easy profits, and profits are not yet easily attainable. On the Demboirtza a policy of cool calculation such as had long been followed on the banks of the Tiber was discovered.

As for Greece, she, too, waited. Her King lay at the point of death for some days, but rallied finally. His death would have been a victory for the Allies, for he was a staunch German supporter, and his wife, a sister of the Kaiser, dominated the Hellenic court. Much depended upon the outcome of a general election in Greece, when a victory for Venizelos might settle the policy of the nation, and Venizelos was a strong believer in alliance with the enemies of Germany. These elections were held on June 13, and resulted in a decisive victory for the supporters of Venizelos, who will have a round majority of 50 in the Chamber of Deputies. Several weeks may elapse, however, before a new parliament can be assembled and Venizelos returned to power.

In sum, it was for Allied success at the Dardanelles that the Balkans were waiting, and the success did not come. On the contrary, such terse official statements as were published in Paris and London disclosed little progress, great losses, and, over all, bore direct and indirect testimony to the splendid fight the Osmanli was making. After five centuries he was in his last ditch. He was



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

A TURKISH INFANTRY COLUMN IN GALLIPOLI

(The background gives an indication of the difficult mountainous character of portions of this peninsula)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

A TROOP SHIP USED AS A TROJAN HORSE

The three small pictures herewith deal with the activities at the Dardanelles. The transport ship shown above was employed in a manner similar to the wooden horse of Troy. This ship, the *River Clyde*, loaded with troops but with no sign of life on deck, was allowed to drift slowly with the tide until it grounded on the beach. The Turks, thinking it was a derelict, made no move against it. As soon as the ship touched the beach, however, the hidden soldiers swarmed over the side, made a landing, and captured the Turkish shore batteries.

The two little pictures on the right show the damage to some of these batteries done by the guns from the allied fleet.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

fighting to hold the exact position which he seized when he made his first entrance into Europe, and under German commanders he was making a fight that recalled Plevna, not Lule Burgas or Kumanovo.

In this situation the Allied armies at the Dardanelles plainly required reinforcement. A Bulgarian army, descending by Adrianople to the Chatalja, a Greek or Italian force landed at Enos, these would turn the scales; but, measured by report, the battle had become one of trenches; inches and yards might be gained, but no more. On the Gallipoli peninsula, as in Flanders and Artois, the situation had become a deadlock.

Only Serbia of the Balkan States actually moved, and she moved, not against Austria, but Albania, sending her troops across the Drina toward Durazzo. On this route in 1912 a Serbian army had made a marvelous but forgotten march for the open sea. Thanks to Austria, the expedition had been in vain. But now, with Italy in the war and claiming the Adriatic littoral, the Serb looked once more to the Adriatic,—to the “window on the sea.” Plainly he meant to confront Europe with the accomplished fact of possession from the Skumbi River to the Montenegrin boundary when peace should come.

For this expedition justification might be found in reported Albanian raids into the Prisrend and Dilra districts. As an Austrian creation, Albania was Hapsburg in sympathy. Once Durazzo, Elbasan, Tirana, and Sku-

tari were taken, the Serbs of Montenegro and Serbia might expect an end of attack on the eastern marches. Serbia might later, assured of possession in Albania, make cessions to Bulgaria promised in 1912 by treaty, but refused when Austria intervened in 1913. But in the opening days the Serbian adventure remained obscure; the world wondered that Serbian effort was not being made on the Danube and the Save to aid by diversion the hard-pressed Russian champion of the southern Slavs.

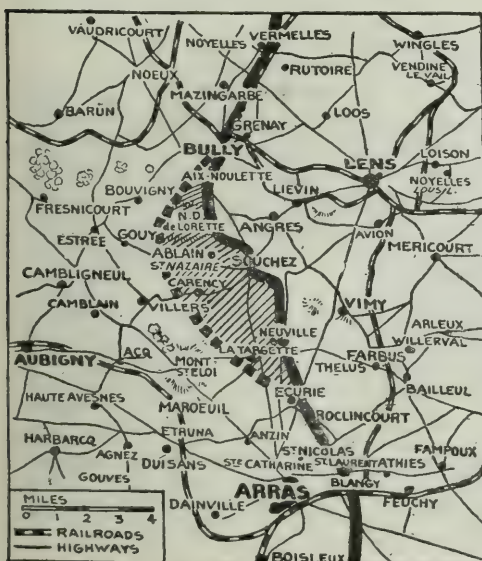
V. IN THE WEST

Of the campaign in the West, perhaps the most striking detail was the absence of any serious effort on the part of the Allies. In a measure this was inexplicable: Russia was staggering under the impact of a blow delivered by huge German forces. Why should her Western allies permit her to bear the full brunt of the German attack while they sat in trenches? London whispered that they were lacking ammunition, but French ammunition seemed adequate.

The single considerable operation was of merely local importance. North of Arras and west of Lens the French pushed on for some rods. Ablain and Neuville-St. Vaast, a portion of Souchez, a line of trenches about Ecurie in the environs of Arras, were taken with more prisoners and a larger capture of guns than had been reported by the French hitherto. The main highway between Arras and Bethune was cleared of Germans. Lens was within sight of French trenches. But the whole operation was but a “nibble”; it bore no resemblance to any “spring drive”; it was a brilliant, successful adventure, but it seemed to have no larger value; it meant little in the liberation of Northern France, so far as was yet discovered.

In Champagne, about Rheims, in the angle between the Oise and the Aisne rivers, about Tracy-le-Mont, there were skirmishes. The Forest of Le Prêtre, north of Pont-à-Mousson, in the St. Mihiel salient, was the scene of a successful French attack. But was this the extent of French ability at the moment when Russia was dealing with the masses of Germans? For the apathy of the French there was no apparent explanation save only the possibility that there was preparing a new grandiose attack from La Bassée to Switzerland, and of this there was no sign.

Even more puzzling was the British quiescence to casualty lists showing a loss of 120,000 in two months,—2000 a day,—bringing the total of British losses for eight



“NORTH OF ARRAS” (FRANCE), A REGION OF STEADY FIGHTING LAST MONTH

months to 258,000, indicating desperate fighting; but for this there was no claim of success, of progress. The lost ground about Ypres was not retaken. No new attack upon La Bassée was reported. As for the Belgians, they reported artillery engagements on their outposts south of the Yser, showing that the Germans still held both banks of the river west of Dixmude. And this was, up to June 15, the sum of Western operations.

Looking at the history of the eleventh month of the Great War, there was no reason to deny the German claim that they were still fighting a successful war on all fronts. Where they now stood in France they had stood for nine months. They had entered France on August 23 from Belgium; they had taken their stand at the Aisne on September 12; they had taken Antwerp on October 8, and reached the Yser and the Lys a few days later. Compelled three times to rescue Austria, and find ammunition and officers for Turkey, they had made good their hold in Northern France and Belgium, and still hung on defiantly, successfully.

Up to this point it is necessary to record the failure of the British army to measure up to the world's expectations. After nearly eleven months that army still occupied little more than 30 miles of the 500 of the Western

front. This narrow front they had held with extreme difficulty, not only in November but in April. So far they had contributed much to the defense but little to the freeing of French territory. Kitchener's "million" was becoming something of a myth, like that of the "Russians in Belgium" in August. British gold and British ships had done much, but in June the Western situation seemed waiting upon British armies to do their share. Fortunate in diplomacy, since Italy entered, the weeks reviewed here were in the field the most disappointing to the champions of the Allies of any since the Battle of the Marne. At the Dardanelles, in Flanders and Artois, there was no answer to the German triumphs in Galicia.

Thus, if the world thought in June of the Napoleonic anniversary and saw a parallel between German position in 1915 and French in 1813, there was quite as solid ground for the German, reviewing the progress of the Great War, to recall the triumphs of Frederick the Great and the Seven Years in which he stood off Europe and held Silesia as Germany now held Belgium and was standing off Europe, and in this memory there was much of hope, reasonable hope, for the descendants of the Prussians who had won Möllwitz, Rossbach, and Zorndorf.



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A FIELD MASS FOR THE GERMAN SOLDIERS

WAR OPINION IN ENGLAND:— SOME CONTRASTS

BY ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE
(Former United States Senator from Indiana)

[In the two preceding numbers of this REVIEW, Senator Beveridge has discussed certain conditions and aspects of national life and sentiment as he found them in Germany and France early in the present year. This third article points out some marked contrasts between the state of the public mind in England and that of France or of Germany. Inasmuch as the relative discord and apathy that were apparent in March and April led up to the cabinet crisis and reconstruction of May, this memorandum of things noted in England has an especial timeliness.—THE EDITOR.]

THE reconstruction of the British cabinet surprised no one who had studied conditions in England by first-hand investigation on the ground. It was plain even in March that this was certain to happen; for dissatisfaction was manifest at the extreme poles of political opinion, and sullenness reigned in the zones between. Some "war Liberals" said that power was making cabinet members too autocratic; and many "war Conservatives" declared, on the contrary, that the government showed weakness, indecision, and procrastination.

Also there were many who thought that Great Britain should not have gone to war; and these still smarted under the methods by which they declared that the nation had been led to take this fatal step. So while the great body of public sentiment upheld the war, yet there was bickering and discontent,—the situation was startlingly unlike that in Germany and France.

Indeed, toward the close of the first phase of the combat of nations, the quick crossing of the Channel brought the student of peoples at war face to face with contrasts; conditions in England appeared to be the reverse of those in France and Germany.

A picturesque circumstance at once compelled sharp comparison. London swarmed with soldiers. For every soldier seen on the streets of Paris or Berlin, one might count at least a hundred in the British capital. No restaurant was without several military customers. Khaki-clad privates were seen strolling in all public parks where the people of London take the air. The music halls were never without a bevy of officers.

Too much cannot be said in praise of the physical appearance of the majority of these British soldiers. Perhaps one-half of the thousands of these volunteers, personally

studied, were superb examples of vigorous and robust manhood. The Scotch especially were magnificent specimens. Superior to all in their physical fitness, vitality, and bearing, were the soldiers and officers from Canada, although comparatively few of these were seen; most of them, it was said, were not at Aldershot or in London.

At a rough estimate, one would say that at least two-thirds, perhaps three-fourths, of all the soldiers and officers observed in England during March of 1915 were excellent military material,—this includes the one-half of the whole who are exceptionally fine-looking men. The remainder were inferior in stature and all other evidences of physical strength.

It was frankly admitted by well-informed Englishmen deeply interested in the war that the officers were not well trained. "You couldn't expect anything else, could you?" said one of these. "They have not had six months' training." "But," he added, with cheerful optimism, "you will find that they will turn out all right."

PUBLIC OPINION ON THE WAR

The heavy weight of British public opinion heartily supported the war. Thoughtful Englishmen of the highest consideration, like Lord Bryce, declared that "the British people are united more than they ever were united before" in support of the war.

Yet it was evident that there were not the compactness and unity of sentiment, or the utter devotion and unlimited resolve, that marked popular feeling in Germany and France. Such careful but outspoken conservatives as Lord Newton frankly asserted that "there are a large number who do not know what the war really means, and there are some who really say that they do not see

what difference it would make to them even if the German Emperor ruled this country"; but Lord Newton said that "undoubtedly by far the greatest majority support the war."

Out of twenty-seven persons interviewed, belonging to the under strata of the "middle class" and ranging down to the "lower class," as the British term describes them, several had no clear idea of the reason for Great Britain's going to war.

"Why, sir, we went to war on Belgium's account," said one of these. "Belgium!" exclaimed another of the group. "We are fighting for ourselves. We can't afford to let Germany get to the Channel." The best-posted one of this class, a barber, thought that "England went into this war to keep Germany from being the first power of Europe,—England couldn't permit that, sir, could she?"

All the others frankly confessed their total ignorance of the whole matter, or were either vague or absurd in their ideas of the cause of this greatest armed strife in human history. For example:

"That German Kaiser was going to come over here and rule England," said a cab-driver. "You don't mean," exclaimed the questioner, "that the German Emperor meant to depose King George and ascend the British throne himself, do you?" "That's exactly what I mean," was the response.

The keeper of a little shop in the poorer quarters of London surmised that: "Money is at the bottom of it, sir." A small business man said that he had not been able to make up his mind why England went to war, but he was sure that she ought not to have done it and very emphatic in his "wish that the politicians would get through with it." There was much of such comment. Of the class referred to only the one quoted even mentioned Belgium.

The curious fact was generally admitted that the middle classes appeared to be unaroused and the so-called lower classes divided between those who are sullenly indifferent and those who are patriotically interested.

But the aristocracy were eager, united, and resolved. Never in history has this hereditary class shown its valor and patriotic devotion in a more heroic way than in the present crisis. Their courage amounts to recklessness. When one listens to undoubtedly true stories of these men's conduct in battle, one almost concludes that they regard it as a point of honor to get killed "like

gentlemen." They are, of course, mostly officers; and it is said that the British private soldier does not take kindly to officers from his own class, but follows willingly only those from the ranks above him, and not even these unless they lead him with a death-inviting physical daring.

The military bustle and confused civilian opinion formed one of the many dissimilarities between war conditions in England and those in the two countries locked in deadly strife almost within sight of the British coast.

Perhaps the facts set forth in this article are the fruits of democracy, although this thought is modified by the reflection that France also is a democracy and the French even more democratic than the English. Or perhaps the conditions here reported flowed from British unpreparedness in land forces, due to her overpreparedness in sea forces; for Great Britain's mighty navy, greater than that of any other two nations combined, and the water-defended location of the United Kingdom, have justly given the British people a sense of security enjoyed by those of no other European country.

But whatever the cause, contrasts and surprises everywhere confronted one who stepped across the Channel from France and Germany to English soil, toward the close of the first period of the war, March of 1915. Antitheses were on every side; and fixed and settled ideas were driven from the mind by the lash of hard and remorseless facts.

LABOR DISPUTES

Perhaps the labor and industrial situation was the most meaningful circumstance that challenged attention.

The first phase of Armageddon was drawing to its close. Great Britain was in the eighth month of the war. Although she had held but thirty miles of the almost four hundred miles of battle line in France, thousands of British soldiers had fallen and hundreds of her finest officers had laid down their lives. The larger part of her expeditionary force, comprising most of her disciplined troops and trained leaders, had been killed, captured, or disabled.

In answer to fervent exhortations and appealing advertisements hitherto unknown in warfare, it was said that 2,500,000 British volunteers had enlisted and were training;—an immense number, and yet only about half of the men with whom France now holds her battle lines or has, highly trained, waiting in reserve depots to join their comrades

at the fighting front; just the same number who, according to informed Germans, although not called to the colors, yet volunteered in Germany when hostilities opened; and perhaps one-third of the number that Germany has under arms or ready to take the field.

Yet popular discontent raised its many-headed visage in multitudes of places throughout the United Kingdom. The workers on the Clyde had struck. The dock laborers at Liverpool had either stopped work or threatened to do so. Here, there, and yonder, the protest of the toiler against conditions flamed up like a fire creeping beneath forest leaves and refusing to be extinguished. Bitter animosity arose.

The powerfully and ably edited London *Post* declared that:

"The behavior of some of our workmen just now would justify martial law. . . . Many of them only work half the week and idle away the rest of the time."

An article in the London *Times* from its special correspondent from Sunderland, entitled "Shipyard Shirkers," thus stated the situation:

The pride of Sunderland [Clyde] is its claim to be the biggest ship-building town in the world; the shame of Sunderland is its large body of shirkers, and that shame is paraded openly and almost ostentatiously in the main street of the town. . . . It is a common thing for men to be away three days each week. . . . Most employers and several workmen attribute the absenteeism to drink. . . . But absenteeism is not wholly, or indeed, largely due to intemperance. The shirkers who parade the streets are a remarkably sober-looking body of men.

The *Daily Mail* asked:

How *could* the employers and their workmen on the Clyde and elsewhere allow an industrial dispute to develop to the serious and immediate peril of their nation in the midst of the most stupendous war the world has ever seen?

In an article by "Our Special Correspondent," entitled, "Do We Realize the War?" the London *Times* published this:

There seems to be a feeling, shared I don't know exactly by whom, that as a nation we are not awake to the importance of the life-and-death struggle in which we are engaged. . . . What can the French think of us? . . . It is known that the pack of hounds we imported into France, in order that our British soldiers might hunt in their spare time, has been put down at the request of the French Government.

The *Daily Mail* editorially asserted that: "The workers in the armament factories

of this country have not, as a whole, realized what this war requires of them."

The labor papers, on the contrary, tigerishly resented these attacks upon the workers. These journals saw in the assaults upon the British laboring man an effort to break down the whole trade-union system and exploitation of labor by the capitalistic classes. "This," declared *Justice*, an organ of the Social Democracy, in a signed article by a vigorous leader,

was the reason why Cabinet Ministers, shareholders, and capitalistic pressmen have commenced this campaign of calumny against a body of men who, but a short time before, they were united in praising. First it was the docker who was lazy, now it is the engineer,—whose turn will it be next? Not the share-holder, who calmly pockets his enhanced dividends, and then proceeds to abuse the men who made the dividends.

Another signed article in this labor paper concerning the strike of the engineers on the Clyde said:

We find the engineering shops seething with discontent, and it is difficult to say what may yet be the outcome.

These, out of scores of similar quotations on both sides of the labor controversy, give some idea of the sharpness of the economic strife in Great Britain.

"THE COMMANDEERING BILL"

So very grave did it finally become, and so acutely was the government embarrassed in conducting the war because of shortage of material and equipment, that toward the middle of March the most drastic and autocratic law ever passed by any legislative body in British history was enacted. Broadly speaking, this law gave the government absolute power to take over and conduct the whole or any part of the industry of Great Britain.

The factories were not turning out proper quantities of munitions. Ship-building firms were working on private contracts. There had been no general voluntary adjustment of manufacturing to changed conditions, as in Germany and France.

But, while employers were blamed for selfishness and profit hunger, the weightiest blows of censure fell upon the heads of British laborers. Thus the government armed itself with Czar-like powers of compulsion over British industry.

The government considered this revolutionary statute so necessary that Mr. Lloyd George, the Chancellor of the Exchequer,

assured the House of Commons that "the success of the war depends upon it." Lord Kitchener, from his place in the House of Lords, told Parliament and the nation that military operations had "been seriously hampered by the failure to obtain skilful labor and by delays in the production of the necessary plants"; and, complaining of labor indifference and trade-unions' restrictions, he grimly declared that the Commandeering bill, as this extreme socialistic measure was popularly called, was "imperatively necessary."

The newspapers were swift to see and frank to state the profound change which this law wrought in British conditions; and justified it only upon the ground of deadly emergency. The *Daily Mail* said that the law established "a sort of industrial dictatorship."

The *Daily Express* asserted that "The new bill is, of course, State Socialism. That must be accepted."

Because the debate disclosed remissness on the part of the manufacturers and the law gave autocratic control of them, the *Morning Post*, after a long comparison of the conduct of workingmen and manufacturers, demanded that "If there are to be powers to deal with 'refractory manufacturers,' let us have powers also to deal with refractory workmen."

The *Star* stated that the "tremendous powers" of the Commandeering bill "make the government absolute dictators in the industrial field."

The *Daily Express*, in discussing another subject, announced that:

"Parliamentary government has temporarily come to an end in Great Britain."

At a large labor meeting personally attended, following the first debate in Parliament upon the Commandeering bill, bitter denunciations of the government were heard. The manufacturers, the ship-owners, the dealers in life's necessities, were, declared the speakers, using the war to squeeze blood-money from the people by an unconscionable raising of prices. One orator asserted that certain high members of the government were personally sharing these wicked profits.

At this particular labor meeting not one warm word was uttered in support of the war. But all demanded that the principles of the Commandeering bill should be applied to food and fuel in order to relieve the distress of the people. If the government, said they, are to take over factories and docks, and to compel labor to toil unrea-

sonably in order that munitions of war shall be furnished, let the government also take over foodstuffs and compel dealers and carriers to sell reasonably for the provisioning of the poor.

THE RISE OF FOOD AND FUEL PRICES

Leaflets and pamphlets were distributed, filled with astounding figures showing the rise of prices and demanding government intervention. A pamphlet entitled "Why Starve?" showed that bread had risen since the outbreak of the war from five pence for a four-pound loaf to seven and one-half pence, and was still going up; and, while the price of all meat had risen sharply, that consumed by the common people had increased enormously. It said that:

"The best parts of British beef and mutton have gone up only an average of 7 per cent., whereas the cheaper parts, which the poorer people buy, have risen 22 per cent."

The pamphlet cited similar soaring of prices in other life necessities, its conclusion being that:

It is just as important that, in a state of war, the provisioning of the people should be undertaken as a national responsibility as that soldiers should be well looked after. . . . National organization of agriculture and national control of the foodstuffs produced, together with the means of transit used in the interests of people in peace as it is now used for military purposes in war,—are the lines which must be followed.

A leaflet distributed in great numbers, entitled "The Enemy Within Our Gates," asserted that:

War, with all its horrors, sufferings, and sacrifices, is regarded by certain people in our midst as affording a special opportunity for plundering their fellow countrymen. Ship-owner, colliery owner, coal merchant, flour merchant, corn speculator,—patriots all!—seek to make huge profits out of our necessities.

And the leaflet gave comparative prices showing that bread, corn, coal (cheaper qualities), meat (cheapest qualities) had almost doubled in price since Great Britain drew the sword.

The leaflet said that one result of the British Navy's clearing the seas of German shipping was that "ship-owners are thus free to increase freights 100, 200, 300, 400, and even 500 per cent."; and demanded that "the government must take over the supply of food and fuel and the means of transport, and must administer that supply for the benefit of the people." The leaflet closed with an appeal for organization "to

force the government to act speedily in the interest of the whole people and to put a stop to this robbery by a gang of profit-mongers trading on the necessities of the poor."

"Oh! they amount to nothing," said one of the most powerful men in England when told of this labor meeting. On the contrary: "But you noticed that the chairman was a member of Parliament, that the representative of the British coöperative stores was one of the speakers, and that all of them were trusted representatives of the working classes," remarked a studious observer when told of this estimate of the insignificance of this labor demonstration.

So familiar had one become, in Germany and France, with smooth-working efficiency, solidarity of sentiment, contentment with economic conditions, and steel-like resolve, that what was seen, heard, and read of the labor and industrial situation across the Channel startled and surprised.

ADVERTISING FOR RECRUITS

Another, though a surface, example of the differences in the British situation as compared with that existing in France and Germany: London was literally plastered with striking posters, urgently appealing for volunteers.

By the middle of March there were signs that such devices were palling on the public; and the *Times*, in an earnest leader, asked, "What steps are being taken to fill the places" of the killed and wounded? Referring to the advertising devices for the securing of enlistments, this powerful editorial declared that:

We confess at once that we have not ourselves admired some of the expedients already employed. Sensational advertisements and indirect compulsion are not the methods by which a great people should raise their armies.

In France, on the contrary, no such flaming appeals to patriotism were found. The only printed inducement to arms to be found in Paris was a modest request to boys under military age, and their parents, to coöperate with the Citizens' Military Committee, that they might be trained for future emergencies. Even this was in plain black type and posted occasionally and without ostentatious prominence on a wall here and there. And it was answered liberally; unripe youth of France were drilling by the thousand.

In Germany appeared no entreaties of any kind for men to join the colors or for women

to support the war; and this was not because, as many in America erroneously suppose, all German men are compelled to bear arms. Hundreds of thousands of German soldiers then and now at the front were and are volunteers.

ENGLAND AND BELGIUM

And Belgium! The greatest surprise in store for the student of peoples at war was the place Belgium occupied in British opinion as the cause of Great Britain entering the conflict. For the American visitor supposed, of course, that Germany's violation of Belgian neutrality was the one and only reason for Great Britain's drawing the sword.

Yet a remarkably bold and powerful leading editorial in the London *Times* of March 8, 1915, on "Why We Are at War," declared that:

Our honor and our interest must have compelled us to join France and Russia, even if Germany had scrupulously respected the rights of her small neighbors. . . . Why did we guarantee the neutrality of Belgium? For an imperious reason of self-interest, for the reason which has always made us resist the establishment of any great power over against our East Coast. . . . We do not set up to be international Don Quixotes, ready at all times to redress wrongs which do us no hurt. . . . Even had Germany not invaded Belgium, honor and interest would have united us with France. We had refused, it is true, to give her or Russia any binding pledge up to the last moment. We had, however, for many years past led both to understand that, if they were unjustly attacked, they might rely upon our aid. This understanding had been the pivot of the European policy followed by the three powers. . . . We reverted to our historical policy of the balance of power for the reasons for which our forefathers adopted it. . . . When we subsidized every state in Germany, and practically all Europe, in the Great War, we did not lavish our gold from love of German or of Austrian liberty, or out of sheer altruism. No; we invested it for our own safety and our own advantage. . . . England is fighting for exactly the same kind of reasons for which she fought Philip III., Louis XIV., and Napoleon. She is fighting the battle of the oppressed, it is true, in Belgium and in Serbia. . . . She is helping her great Allies to fight in defense of their soil and of their homes against the aggressor. . . . But she is not fighting primarily for Belgium or for Serbia, for France or for Russia. They fill a great place in her mind and in her heart. But they come second. The first place belongs, and rightly belongs, to herself.

In a brilliant leader of March 17, the *Morning Post* asserted:

This country did not go to war out of pure altruism, as some people suppose, but because her very existence was threatened. A Germany supreme in France and the Netherlands must inevitably have destroyed the British Empire next. That

is what really underlies "the scrap of paper" and all the talk of "German militarism"!

Of several thoroughly informed and eminently thoughtful men, belonging to the various political parties, whose names are well known in intellectual England, only one ventured to intimate that Great Britain would not have declared war if Germany had not violated Belgium's neutrality.

With this exception, every gentleman conversed with said quite frankly that Great Britain would have entered the conflict regardless of Belgium, although all of them emphasized what they called "the Belgian outrage." A composite of the view of these gentlemen, Liberal and Conservative, was that Great Britain could not afford to see France crushed or to permit Germany to get a foothold on the Channel or to allow her to become strong enough to contest, or even question, Great Britain's mastery of the seas; or to upset Europe's balance of power, which, it was asserted, Germany's growing strength was overturning.

And every one of them said that if Germany is not beaten now, "it will be our turn next." Just as in France it was agreed that if France had let Germany defeat Russia, "it would have been our turn next," so in England the common expression among supporters of the war was that if England had let Germany defeat Russia and France, "it would have been our turn next." In both England and France it seemed to be taken for granted that Germany could beat any one of the Allies, or any two of them combined, and that the safety of each required the united effort of all.

The consensus of competent opinion was that the British Government would have plunged into the maelstrom of blood even though Belgium had gone untouched by German hands.

So, while those sincere and powerful men and consummate politicians, Mr. Asquith and Mr. Lloyd George, in their public appeals during the first months of the war, gave the Belgian violation as the one reason for Great Britain's plunging into Armageddon, yet in March, 1915, few could be found who were willing to say that this was the sole cause of Great Britain's action.

Indeed, it was related that, at the very moment when the Liberal government made its fateful decision, a large number of Liberals were sharply discontented. Among these were many important men. So grave, it was declared, was the dissent that three men, conspicuous in British politics, resigned

from the government. These noted Liberals were Lord Morley, John Burns, and Charles Trevelyan. In March, 1915, it was openly charged that so extensive was the disaffection in the Liberal party when war was decided upon that the government, not being certain that it could command sufficient strength within its own party, made a deal with the leaders of the compact opposition, which was and is hot for the war, to support the government in its war measures; and that in return, the government agreed to drop all contested legislation while the war lasted.

This meant, it was asserted, that the program of Liberal legislation, certainly its most vital parts, to which the government and Liberal party were pledged, was to be indefinitely postponed. The general terms of this agreement were even reduced to writing in a letter which passed between Mr. Asquith for the government and Mr. Bonar Law and Lord Lansdowne for the opposition. There are those in England who bitterly denounce this as a betrayal of the Liberal party by the government; and some important men openly and acidly said so.

Nor was criticism of the government confined to this class of Liberals; many Conservatives were even more severe on what they considered the government's inefficiency. The forces that break up cabinets were plainly apparent in March, 1915. The opposition was restless under the government's lack of vigor; and the discontented Liberals were brooding over the manner in which, they said, England had been maneuvered into war and the bargain between the government and the opposition.

SIR EDWARD GREY'S ALLEGED "SECRET DIPLOMACY"

At the very outset this latter body of English sentiment felt outraged that Sir Edward Grey's "secret diplomacy," as they called it, had pledged the honor of the British nation to support France in a war with Germany without the British people being permitted to know anything about it until too late. Neither the British people nor even Parliament, said these men, were advised of what these men call Sir Edward Grey's "secret promise" to France until he announced it in the House of Commons on August 3, when it was impossible to escape its consequences.

"Is it not monstrous," exclaimed Charles Trevelyan, "that a people are only told on the eve of war that they must go into it because a secret agreement, made long be-

fore by a concealed diplomacy, has bound the honor of a nation to that course?"

"The Liberal party and the nation were led up to the guns blindfolded," declared Bernard Shaw.

On the other hand, Sir Edward Grey's supporters denied that the British foreign minister made any pledge which bound Great Britain. In his historic speech of August 3, Sir Edward Grey told the House that in 1906, when questioned as to what Great Britain would do in case of war between France and Germany, he had expressed his personal view that British public opinion "would have rallied to the material support of France."

But in pursuance of this, and at the request of France, said the critics of Sir Edward Grey, conferences followed between the French and British naval and military experts for the purpose of making the joint military and naval action of France and Great Britain effective against Germany in a practical way. Out of these Franco-British naval and military conferences, it was said, came the mutual placing of the British and French fleets; so that, when the present war burst upon Europe, and apparently long before, the French fleet was concentrated in the Mediterranean, thus releasing the bulk of the British fleet for work in the North Sea and the Channel.

No attempt is here made to go into the merits of this controversy. It exists and the fact is here recorded.

PROPAGANDA AGAINST "SECRET DIPLOMACY"

But it must not be inferred that these British critics of Sir Edward Grey and the government do not support the war, now that Great Britain is engaged in the struggle. They do support the war, though not with that savage aggressiveness which marks the utterance and action of what they call the extreme imperialists. They say that it was wrong (some of them used the expression "infamously wrong") for Sir Edward Grey to have created conditions which made it inevitable that Great Britain would enter the struggle while keeping the people in ignorance of the situation; some of them vigorously declare that Great Britain ought not to have gone to war at all. But now that the die is cast, even these men feel that their country must go through with it.

But they are looking to the end of it and already have formed a strong organization advocating certain principles to govern the terms of peace and to prevent such another

catastrophe as the present. This organization is known as the Union of Democratic Control. Its principles are that:

(1) No province shall be transferred from one government to another without consent by plebiscite of the population of such province.

(2) No treaty, arrangement, or understanding shall be entered upon in the name of Great Britain without the sanction of Parliament. Adequate machinery for ensuring democratic control of foreign policy shall be created.

(3) The foreign policy of Great Britain shall not be aimed at creating alliances for the purpose of maintaining the "balance of power," but shall be directed to the establishment of a concert of Europe and the setting up of an international council whose deliberations and decisions shall be public.

(4) Great Britain shall propose as part of the peace settlement a plan for the drastic reduction by consent of the armaments of all the belligerent powers, and to facilitate that policy, shall attempt to secure the general nationalization of the manufacture of armaments, and the control of the export of armaments by one country to another.

This organization is extremely active. Public meetings are being held where effective speakers appeal to the people. Pamphlets are being showered throughout the British Islands. Most of these assail the whole system of "secret diplomacy" of which they declare that Sir Edward Grey's and the government's conduct is a calamitous example. One of these declares:

The public has been treated as though foreign affairs were outside,—and properly outside,—its ken. And the public has acquiesced. Every attempt to shake its apathy has been violently assailed by spokesmen of the Foreign Office in the press.

One of these pamphlets, by Arthur Ponsonby, M.P., asserts that:

When war had become a certainty, undebated statements were made to a bewildered and entirely ignorant House. Neither in the decisions nor in the policy which led to the decisions was there the smallest exercise of any control by the people of their representatives.

Another pamphlet, entitled "War and the Workers," by J. Ramsay MacDonald, M.P., gives the workingman's view of the war. He thus describes

the hidden currents beneath which were flowing to war. The Entente was brought about in 1904. Two years later it resulted in "military conversations" withheld at first from the Cabinet and never revealed to the people until the war cloud was low and black over their heads. Instantly from every newspaper at the beginning of August the war bugles blew (they had been blown by the most influential ones days before); books which had

enjoyed no circulation of repute in Germany were sold by hundreds of thousands'; accounts of how we got into the war, with salient facts obscured or left out, in pamphlets and leaflets were scattered broadcast.

As to "militarism," Mr. MacDonald asserts that:

What is known as Prussian militarism differs only in degree from British militarism. They are all strengthened by secret diplomacy, because so long as the cleansing light of the sun falls sparingly on the foreign offices, the game of bluff, squeeze, and gambling risk can be carried on.

A pamphlet on "War, the Offspring of Fear," by the Hon. Bertrand Russell, stating the German view, declares the war to be:

A great race-conflict, a conflict of Teuton and Slav, in which certain other nations, England, France, and Belgium, have been led into coöperation with the Slav.

In a remarkably lucid review of the underlying causes of the war, Mr. Russell, outlining Austrian opinion, states that, "The Austrians are a highly civilized race, half surrounded by Slavs in a relatively backward state of culture"; calls Serbia, "a country so barbaric that a man can secure the throne by instigating the assassination of his predecessor," and asserts that Serbia "is engaged constantly in fomenting the racial discontent of men of the same race who are Austrian subjects. Behind Serbia stands the all but irresistible power of Russia"; maintains that the war on Germany's part is not "aggressive in substance, whatever it may be in form. In substance it is defensive, the attempt to preserve Central Europe for a type of civilization indubitably higher and of more value to mankind than that of any Slav state."

Mr. Russell thus puts Germany's case:

The Germans could not stand by passively while Russia destroyed Austria; honor and interest alike made such a course impossible. They were bound by their alliance, and they felt convinced that if they were passive it would be their turn next to be overrun by the Russian hordes.

As to England, Mr. Russell contends that "fear of the German Navy led us to ally ourselves with France and Russia"; but that England's fears "have had to be carefully nursed."

A pamphlet by Norman Angell, while assailing "militarism," vigorously combats the

idea of "crushing Germany for good and all," and asserts that

the Germans are of all the peoples of Europe the most nearly allied to ourselves in race and blood; in all the simple and homely things our very language is the same,—and every time that we speak of house and love, father and mother, son and daughter, God and man, work and bread, we attest to common origins in the deepest and realest things that affect us. Our religious history is allied; our political ties have in the past been many. Our Royal Family is of German descent.

The above are moderate—much stronger statements are made. For example, consider these extracts from an essay on "The Origins of the Great War," by H. N. Brailsford:

It was our secret naval commitment to France and our fatal entanglement through ten years in the struggle for a European balance of power which sent our fleets to sea. . . . To the statesmen [German] the issue was . . . whether Russia, using Serbia as her vanguard, should succeed in breaking up the Austrian Empire. . . . the flying buttress of her [Germany's] own imperial fabric. . . . Their [the Servians'] morals and their politics belong to the Middle Ages. . . . The officers who . . . murdered his Queen [after assassinating King Alexander], mutilated her corpse, and flung it naked into the streets of Belgrade, gave the measure of their own social development.

The Pan-Slavists have brought the whole of European civilization to a test which may come near submerging it, in order to accomplish their dream of racial unity. . . . We are taking a parochial view of Armageddon if we allow ourselves to imagine that it is, primarily, a struggle for the independence of Belgium and the future of France. . . . It is . . . an issue so barbarous, so remote from any real interest or concern of our daily life in these islands, that I can only marvel at the illusions and curse the fatality which have made us belligerents in this struggle. . . . A mechanical fatality has forced France into this struggle, and a comradeship, translated by secret commitments into a defensive alliance, has brought us into the war in her wake,—it is no real concern of hers or of ours. . . . No call of the blood, no imperious calculation of self-interest, no hope for the future of mankind require us to side with Slav against Teuton. . . . Enthusiasts for this hateful war may applaud it as an effort to destroy German militarism,—this is a meaningless phrase.

All the pamphlets from which the above quotations are made are issued and circulated in England by the Union of Democratic Control.

It is not pretended that these quotations give even a part of the argument or express the spirit of these extraordinary pamphlets. The notable fact is that such statements were made in print under the names of reputable Englishmen and scattered broadcast throughout the United Kingdom during the

* Mr. MacDonald here refers undoubtedly to Bernardi's book.

close of the first period of the war. This fact is here set down because it cannot be ignored in drawing the outlines of the British situation as it existed in March, 1915, and also because of the forcible contrast it presented with the state of French or German opinion.

POPULAR COMMENT ON GERMANY

Most of the press was decidedly warlike and whetted to a keen edge of bitterness. "The Huns" was the term commonly applied to the Germans, and this, too, by respectable and important newspapers. One favorite description of the Germans was "The Pirates." An influential journal called Germany "Europe's kitchen-wench decked in her mistress's clothes and trespassing in the drawing-room." Yet even the most belligerent papers occasionally lashed out in criticism of the government and bewailed conditions—much more so than American newspapers do.

While moderate-minded men who heartily support the war frowned upon extravagant epithets, it seemed probable that they express the feelings of great numbers of ultra-warlike people. *John Bull*, a penny weekly said to have immense circulation, voiced this militant view in sledge-hammer fashion. It said that the "Kaiser is a lunatic"; it called him "The Butcher of Berlin," "that mongrel Attila," who "will be known to infamy forever as 'William the Damned,'" and asserted that "no principle of equity would be outraged if he were blown from the cannon's mouth."

This popular war weekly assumed, of course, that the Allies would soon overwhelm Germany—nothing else was thinkable; and *John Bull* thus editorially sketched for the British eye "The Glory That Shall Be":

This war is the precursor of a new era for the British race and Empire. . . . The German fleet must be swept from the face of the seas. . . . No false notions of humanity or of economy must be permitted to hinder the work of destruction. . . . From the close of this war Germany shall use the waterways of the world by the courtesy of Britain. And, when it comes to peace, we must assert ourselves as the predominant partner. . . . For the Huns there can be no re-admission to the free commonwealth of Europe. . . . Britain shall recover her challenged supremacy in the western fraternity of nations. . . . *We shall not disarm.*

In an editorial entitled "Not a Vestige of the German Empire to Be Left," *John Bull* declared that Germany "must be wiped off the map of Europe." In still another

editorial it described the doom of Germany and the destiny of Great Britain according to the divine plan:

"God moves in a mysterious way His wonders to perform," and the wonder He is now performing is the riddance of Europe, and mankind, of the Teutonic menace to His scheme of things. That scheme, as clearly as human intelligence can comprehend anything, was and is that, for good or ill, He has placed the destiny of the earth in the hands of the Anglo-Saxon race, with the Latins as their natural allies. All else is accidental, or caprice; it cannot affect the final order of the world.

The labor papers struck quite a different chord. In an editorial, "The Atrocious Atrocity Stories," the *Herald* [London] declared that the mutilation horrors first published

served well their two-fold purpose. They were at one and the same time a stimulus to recruiting and the gratification of that particular species of lustful insanity which in times of peace takes its pleasures in other and equally infamous forms. But when it was discovered that these stories were not only incapable of proof, but that the vast majority of them were capable of disproof; when there was a provoking absence of handless children, searched the mongers never so hard, there was a reaction to decent silence, but not for long. This time the stories concern themselves with a wholesale outraging of nuns and school-girls. . . . Make but your lie infamous and vile enough, and it will be believed. So much was proved up to the hilt in the earlier series of stories; so much is being proved in the later. As before, every town and village sheltered handless children, so now every convent is supposed to harbor outraged and pregnant nuns. Yet not one solitary case of either infamy has been produced that could survive the easiest scrutiny, and not one will be produced.

In March, 1915, there was in England no such solid and unbroken certainty of victory as was found in either France or Germany. Still, the bulk of British opinion was sure and undoubting. "So far as the result is concerned, the war is over now," said one of the most influential men in the Empire.¹

On the contrary, in an uncommonly thoughtful and frank leader the London *Post* analyzed the situation and, while concluding that the Allies will be victorious, said:

But we admit that Fate hangs upon a fine edge, and there is no certainty in the matter; there is only hope and determination. . . . We have just barely held our own. . . . It must be a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull all together if the enemy is to be hoisted across the border.

¹ This conversation occurred March 11, 1915.

While such expressions were frequent, yet it is believed that they did not reflect the general feeling; most people in England had sturdy faith in the success of the Allies. But it was undeniable that doubt did exist in some minds and that weariness of the war was affecting many who were its staunch supporters.

"BUSINESS AS USUAL"

Another surface contrast of conditions impressed with uncanny grotesqueness the observer fresh from France and Germany. The greatest war in the whole course of human history lacked but four months of its first year of carnage; grave editorials penned, one might almost say, with the heart's blood of the writers, so sincere was their appeal, informed the nation that its existence was at hazard, and the people that poverty, humiliation, and slavery would be the result of defeat; yet sport and games of all kinds were going on as usual. Bitter lashings from press, pulpit, and rostrum had not turned the British youth from his favorite amusements.

Against loud protests from newspapers and public men, England's premier sporting institution, the Jockey Club, resolved on March 16 "that racing should be carried out where the local conditions permit." The Jockey Club's debate filled an entire page of the *Daily Telegraph*. One of the best-known peers of the realm, in his argument for holding the meet as usual, said that

the Russians have been going on racing during the whole period of the war, the Belgians had large studs in this country and were racing as hard as they could, the Grand Duke Nicholas, as has already been mentioned at the meeting, ran a greyhound in the Waterloo Cup, etc., etc., etc.

The prevailing opinion was that to discontinue racing for the war would discourage the breeding of fine horseflesh, disappoint the lovers of sport, and give the Germans the impression that the British people were downhearted.

Still another contrast was the condition of British business. It was much better than that of Germany and out of all proportion to that of France. The casual observer could detect little difference in business between that of peace time and that of this hour of Great Britain's deadliest emergency. The catchword, "business as usual," coined by Lloyd George when Great Britain unleashed the dogs of war, seemed to catch the popular fancy.

At the very moment when the most desperate and dramatic efforts were being made to strengthen the British army and supply it with equipment, enthusiastic meetings of business men were planning the capture of German over-seas commerce and devising means for taking over the German dye industry.

While business men acquainted with trade conditions said that normal business had fallen off, yet their claim was plainly true that the volume of British business was greater than that of all the other countries at war put together. This, of course, was due to Great Britain's lordship of the seas,—a notable fact which British newspapers and magazines kept well in the front. For example, in an able editorial on another subject, the *Daily Telegraph* said: "We possess the control of the sea communications of the world"; and again that "we and not the enemy command the seas."

The above are a few examples of a long catalogue of dissimilarities between British war-time conditions and those of the two nations most closely locked in mortal combat on the other side of the Channel.

CANADA AS A CONTRAST

The end of those British conditions which have hampered military action and brought on one cabinet crisis does not yet appear to be in sight. On the contrary, other ministerial upheavals are not improbable. Indeed, they even may be looked for. There is, of course, a possibility that the "coalition" government may straighten out the tangle; but this is not likely,—the causes of discontent seem to be too deep, the differences too irreconcilable.

The United Kingdom might well look across the seas for inspiration and example. Canada is furnishing both. The unity of sentiment, the direct and unwavering purpose, the practical vigor and governmental efficiency displayed in the Dominion are object-lessons which the British Islands might copy to advantage. It must be remembered, of course, that Canada, whose conduct has been and is so admirable, has no such congestion of people, no such labor situation, no such food problem as that which confronts and all but confounds the mother country. But, even so, Canada is writing an immortal record of undivided loyalty to and self-sacrificing support of the British Empire, which is not apparent, in like degree, in the United Kingdom itself.

THE WAR SPIRIT IN CANADA

BY J. P. GERRIE

[There is no man who understands Canadian life and sentiment better than the Rev. John Petrie Gerrie, who has at different times served the readers of this magazine with informing and trustworthy articles regarding affairs in the Dominion. Two months ago he told us of the stirring movement for prohibition, especially in the great agricultural states of the new northwest. He was for a long time identified with affairs in the province of Ontario, and is a graduate of McGill University. For six years he was the editor of the *Canadian Congregationalist*. For the past four years he has been in the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta, and is now at Edmonton, where there is a large training camp for recruits. His son is fighting with the Canadian troops in France. —THE EDITOR.]

CANADA is essentially peace-loving and peace-living. The absence of forts, defenses, and every semblance of militarism on a 3000-mile border-line of a country which outnumbers us twelve to one indicates this. The centenary of peace between the two lands was first publicly proposed by one of our rising young statesmen, the Hon. W. Mackenzie King, in an address on receiving his Ph.D. degree from Harvard a few years ago. The proposal has been enthusiastically taken up, and very fervent utterances have been heard from both countries that never again will a hostile shot be fired across the line, nor an invading force enter either border. We have confidence in our neighbors and they in us.

Neither was there any thought of war with Germany. Many thousands from that land are law-abiding, industrious citizens, and no class of non-Anglo-Saxon people have been more cordially welcomed to the Dominion. To date these people are largely as before. There is no apparent difference in their attitude to ourselves, nor in ours to them. A young German, a little more than a year from his fatherland, approached the writer at the outbreak of the war, and expressed concern about an expected unkind attitude toward himself. He was answered that he was here to be a Canadian, and as such to attend to his own business in the usual way and no one would molest him. I have met him on several occasions since that date, and again as I write this paragraph he is at the desk, and I find that the advice first given him has been borne out in his every experience. There is no disposition to beget mistrust or strife with our German citizens unless invited by their own conduct.

WHY CANADA VOLUNTEERED

And even after the war broke out there was no legal nor constitutional reason to call

Canada into the war. In our relationship with England we have the fullest and freest autonomy, or as Kipling put it, even as far back as 1897, in his "Lady of the Snows":

"Daughter am I in my Mother's house,
But mistress in my own."

This was before our marvelous development and the sounding of our new national note. It is equally true to-day. Nor did the fear of Germany impel us to a part in the war. With the British fleet intact no invasion from that quarter could be possible. Friendly relations with Japan preclude danger from the Pacific, while the Monroe Doctrine of the United States, notwithstanding discussions pro and con, it is felt would become operative in case of any invasion for conquest. There is a feeling, too, that the Young Giant of the North would not be wanting in the event of such a home struggle.

It is not, therefore, a question of mere self-preservation from a power whose autocracy and militarism are the very antipodes of Canadian life and ideals. The daughter responds to the mother's need. But more, Canada, though autonomous, is yet an integral part of the British Empire. The ideals and institutions, the freedom and democracy are substantially one. Our two million French-Canadian people and many thousands of other citizens equally realize this. England's cause is, therefore, peculiarly our own.

THE CANADIAN TROOPS HAVE MADE GOOD

Accordingly, when war broke out a former utterance of Sir Wilfrid Laurier was made good, that "When England is at war Canada is at war." This the veteran ex-Premier supplemented in Parliament at the time of the outbreak with the stirring slogan, "Ready, aye, ready," while the present Premier, Sir Robert Borden, rang out the as-

suring message of office,—“We await the issue with confidence,” nor has this confidence ever wavered in Parliament or country. With one voice both parties voted a preliminary war appropriation of \$50,000,000. Enlisting began, steady, sure, enthusiastic. The First Contingent of 31,200 men, nearly 10,000 more than was suggested by the Army Council, mobilized at Valcartier, Quebec, by September 1st; the middle of October saw them at Salisbury Plains, England, and a like date in February most of them in France and at the front. “A magnificent lot of men” was General Sir John French’s estimate of them, and this has been borne out by their heroic stand at Ypres-Langemarche where, according to the report of the War Office, “they saved the situation.” Very stirring are the English pictorial illustrations of these and subsequent engagements. *Punch* gives a full-page picture of a young soldier standing beside a machine-gun amid breaking shells, with tattered uniform, head bandaged, triumphantly determined, one hand holding aloft his rifle on the muzzle of which is his soldier cap, while the other grasps the Canadian-British flag. Underneath is the significant inscription:

CANADA!

Ypres: April 22-24, 1915.

Pictures in the *Illustrated London News* and other periodicals are equally eloquent in their tributes to Canadian worth and heroism. Following the First Contingent a Second and Third were soon mobilized, most of whom will probably be on their way to the front or actually there before the reader sees these lines. The immediate goal is 108,000, which will be more than doubled should the need arise. German atrocities, reported and confirmed, have been no deterrent, but rather a mighty incentive,—so also the hideous massacre of the *Lusitania*’s passengers,—men, women, and children. Canada’s terrible casualty list incites a fresh spirit of self-sacrifice and courage, and makes good Goldsmith’s lines on General Wolfe:

E’en now thou conquerest though dead,
Since from thy tomb a thousand heroes rise.

ACTIVE PART TAKEN BY COLLEGE MEN

Some of the more specific features of the war spirit are of peculiar interest. First of all may be mentioned the attitude of the

colleges and universities. So foreign was the war spirit prior to the outbreak that there had been practically no military training of any kind for many years. This, too, was in face of a request from the Militia Department of the Dominion seven years ago that the universities do as some of them do in England, and train men for commissions in the army. McGill University, Montreal, alone took the matter up in lecture courses, but so wanting was the military spirit that at the end of six years’ effort only six men in that institution qualified, or an average of one a year.

War breaking out, the eighteen universities and the many colleges responded as one. Queen’s University of Kingston, which had an Engineers’ Corps of five years’ standing, sent a force of 170 students to drain and settle the camp at Valcartier for the First Contingent. Upwards of 156 students and eight members of the teaching staff are already in active service, while others will yet go from the training corps of 250 undergraduates organized last November. McGill at once took the matter up, organizing a provisional regiment of 1200 men, made up of 100 members of the teaching faculty, 200 graduates, and 900 undergraduates. Of these 150 are already abroad, 100 more on the way thither or in preparation to go, while two more groups of students will speedily follow. In addition to all this, subscriptions of \$25,000 have been made which it is expected will yet be raised to \$50,000. Toronto University had last session from 1800 to 2000 students in training, while already 307 are enlisted in active service. And so we might go on, but it will be sufficient to say that all the other universities are making proportionate contributions according to ability and size. From the nine or ten thousand men in the universities it is estimated that more than five thousand are under military training, and this does not include the theological and other colleges, who have also given freely up to fifty per cent. of their number. Thus it is that Canada is giving her best in body, intellect, and soul.

SERVICE OF THE Y. M. C. A.

The Young Men’s Christian Association likewise calls for special mention. A recent copy of the *British Weekly* is unsparing in its commendation of this service in the Old Land. Like tributes are earned for Association work among the soldiers in Canada. The day war was declared between England and Germany the machinery was set in mo-

tion. Eight efficient secretaries were speedily on the grounds at Valcartier helping with mobilization, and from a large central marquee rendering all manner of service for the men. Subsequent camps all over Canada have been manned by the Association, which has also given free use of the local buildings for gymnastic, bathing, swimming, and other purposes. The response of the soldiers in these particulars has been large and continuous. Instruction has also been given in colloquial French, First Aid to the Injured, practical military training and gymnastics, and in other things contributing to efficiency in soldier life. Nor has the more distinctively religious been lost sight of, the calls to which have been responded to with crowded houses and in other ways. It would be a long story to relate in detail the service of the Y. M. C. A. in the camp life of the Dominion, and its continuation with the men overseas in the hands of the thirteen secretaries who have journeyed with the soldiers.

GENEROUS PROVISION FOR SOLDIERS' FAMILIES

The Patriotic Fund is rightly a most interesting feature of Canada's relation to the war. Figures from the First Contingent showed that over 50 per cent. of the men had family relatives dependent upon them. Separate and independent organizations were immediately formed in many places for the care of these families. It soon became apparent that a cohesive national organization would much more effectively cope with the situation. Accordingly the Governor-General invited representative citizens from all over Canada to meet in conference in Ottawa. The immediate outcome was the formation of the Canadian Patriotic Fund with headquarters in that city, and the Finance Minister of the Dominion as treasurer. Branches have been organized from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the boundary line to the most northerly center, and are giving splendid service. Because of the inequality of different points in recruiting and subscribing, the general principle has been adopted to "raise what you can and draw what you need." In this "raising" many of the smaller places have subscribed from one to seven dollars per individual, while five large eastern cities promptly responded with a subscription list of \$3,500,000. Many of the payments are on the instalment plan, but the actual cash in sight up to the end of the year in addition to what has already been

received will amount to at least \$3,900,000.

In the "drawing," British, Newfoundland, French, Belgian, Russian, and Serbian reservists in the Dominion all stand upon equal footing with the distinctively Canadian enlistment, and in the apportionment, the family, need, and location will be determining factors. Coöperation is had with the Soldiers and Sailors Association in England, the British Imperial Relief Association of New England, and the Canadian Society in New York. Like committees are planned for other centers such as Chicago, St. Louis, San Francisco, Detroit, and other cities where Canada is well represented by present and former citizens. In the bestowal of the funds every semblance of charity is eliminated, inasmuch as every loyal Canadian feels himself under obligation to make some contribution either in enlisting, or in donating from his means. The fund is, therefore, a just obligation to the self-sacrifice of women, children, and dependents of the men at the front, many of whom will never return for their support. This self-sacrifice will, in many cases, be infinitely more than that of those who give liberally of their means, so that charity is banished from the minds of both the giver and the recipient.

RED CROSS WORK

The Red Cross has likewise won for itself an enviable name. At the very beginning of the war the organization became more than busy, and has continued on its way with ever-increasing usefulness. A center was at once opened in London, England, which became the recipient of all manner of articles from the Dominion for sick and wounded soldiers. Among these were full equipments for a hospital at Taplow, a score of motor ambulances, and large sums of money for undesignated needs. Another hospital, the Duchess of Connaught's hospital, was opened at Cliveden, where Mr. Waldorf Astor gave the free use of Taplow Lodge and splendid grounds, and in addition made costly changes for hospital efficiency, while the Red Cross Society supplied the equipment, which is a marvel in its completeness and efficiency. Canadian doctors and nurses are at the helm, and nothing is wanting which skill and experience can supply in caring for the sick and suffering.

The Information Department acts as a medium between the patient and the War Office and through the office with friends and relatives. So efficient is this bureau that it calls forth the commendation of the Lon-

don press in the words: "It is typical of Canadian thoroughness." At the seat of war the service of the society has been no less significant, while in Canada the work goes on from ocean to ocean with unabated interest. Churches, the press, organizations of various kinds, and individuals have vied with one another in contributing their quota. Though a voluntary organization, it is yet through its act of incorporation responsible to the Minister of Militia for reports of the work performed, but no report can detail the far-reaching influences of its ministrations.

COUNTRY BEFORE PARTY!

And now as to present feeling. From the very first Canada was heart and soul in the struggle, but never with the tremendous seriousness of now, and never with so unwavering confidence of absolute triumph as to-day. A great nation running amuck, and with her, her allies even to the "Unspeakable Turk," in murder and massacre,—alienating every vestige of sympathy from the neutral powers, cannot but be broken in pieces. The cost to the opposing forces is terrible, and Canada has had her baptism of blood, but she is ready to pay the price and will emerge from the conflict a better Canada. She will stand in a world which has learned the lesson of peace that she has sought long to know, in learning war no more. Her many diverse peoples, through a oneness of interests, and community of suffering, will find common ground as never in the past. With a new love and interest she will view the multitudes of immigrants from her allied nations who will worthily recip-

rocate these ennobled feelings. Nor will there be other than kindly feelings toward the German and Austrian people as a whole. Our quarrel is not with them as a people. When the rage and fury of the war is over they will have time to think, and in no far future day they will come again to the land which so many of their own countrymen now love so well.

In the meantime the fiery furnace, seven times heated in a common cause with our allied forces, will give new intensity to the "Melting Pot" which the Dominion has come to be. Her varied peoples, welded by a common suffering, joined in the oneness of conflict, will be indissolubly united in the pathways of peace, as together they make a more prosperous and better Canada. And more, there has been the burying of party rancor and strife of a type never to be resurrected. In the old land, Liberal and Unionist, Nationalist and Laborite are one in the struggle. A coalition government of the strongest of the best is at the nation's helm. In Canada we have something of the same attitude in the opposition abstaining from all

undue criticism, and responding with their best in coöperation and counsel. In the usual course of events, too, a general election would be near at hand, and much as the veteran ex-premier might have welcomed this but for the war, he now says: "No, I shall not unlock the door of office with the key of blood." Shoulder to shoulder, heart to heart, the two party leaders stand. It is not party but country first, and with this splendid union of parties and of peoples, the Canada to be will be lifted high above the Canada that has been.



A TRIBUTE TO CANADA FROM "PUNCH"
(See page 60)

THE BALKANS AND THE WAR

BY DR. IVAN YOVITCHÉVITCH

(Secretary-General of the Council of State of Montenegro)

[This brief statement giving the point of view of the distinguished Montenegrin statesman is most interesting when read in connection with Mr. Stoddard's article that immediately follows. Mails come slowly from Montenegro, and this was written before Italy's decision.—THE EDITOR.]

CERTAIN predictions in an article of mine which appeared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS in its issue of March, 1915, are beginning to be realized. Turkey is the point in question here, and in writing these lines I am reminded of the desperate cry: "The end of Poland!" wrung from the lips of the great Polish hero, Kosciuszko, after the Battle of Maciejowice in 1794. Well, the moment is nigh when the Turkish adventurer, Enver Pasha, will have to utter a like cry: "The end of Turkey!"—thanks to bad politics. The fall of Constantinople, then, is inevitable, and its inhabitants would cry out in vain, following the example of the Romans, who kept exclaiming at every impending danger "Hannibal at the gates!" for nothing can any longer save Constantinople and, consequently, prevent Turkey's dismemberment.

THE BAD POLICY OF GREECE

The approaching fall of Constantinople has aroused the greatest agitation in the neutral Balkan States, and it seems, moreover, as if their statesmen had lost their bearings, no longer knowing the path to take that would make for their advantage in this complicated maze of events. Thanks to the wisdom of the eminent Greek statesman, Venizelos, Greece had, indeed, chosen the only rational and profitable road,—that is, to enter into action for the capture of Constantinople. In thus abandoning her neutrality and ranging herself on the side of Russia and its allies, Greece would have gained, on the settlement of Turkey's status, the province of Smyrna and perhaps other districts along the coast of Asia Minor which are largely peopled by Greeks.

Unfortunately for Greece, Venizelos' ingenious plan failed, owing to the intrigues of German diplomacy which, as is evidenced by that fact, is still very influential in directing the policy of certain Balkan States. But directing the Hellenic policy may, according to advices from Berlin, prove most disastrous to Greece. There is no longer question of an increase of Greek territory at the ex-

pense of Turkey; she could never obtain that without entering into action against Turkey and, consequently, against its allies, but she may risk losing what she gained in the Balkan War. Everybody knows Bulgaria's aspirations regarding Macedonia, and as she can no longer hope to gain possession of Serbian Macedonia, since Serbia is protected by Russia and its allies, it is in the range of possibility that Bulgaria may take advantage of the isolation of Greece to obtain possession of Grecian Macedonia, and particularly of Salonica, which is very important to her.

Admitting the possibility of such a supposition, the question naturally arises: What would Greece do should she find herself attacked by Bulgaria, which might, as a preliminary step, secure the neutrality of Rumania? She would, in my opinion, have a troublous time, for the Greek army would be unable to hold out against the Bulgarian onset. In order, therefore, to avert a possible Bulgarian invasion and to obtain an assured compensation, Greece, in my judgment, ought to recall Venizelos to power,—the man who has given evidence of a remarkable diplomatic ability, the man who reorganized the Greek army and navy.

BULGARIA IN DEADLOCK

The approaching fall of Constantinople has produced as great a consternation in Bulgaria as it has in Greece. The Bulgarian diplomats who proclaimed the neutrality of their country,—in expectation of a German and Austrian victory, upon which Bulgaria was to hurl itself upon Serbia in order to wrest Macedonia from her,—find themselves greatly embarrassed to-day in view of present events: the Allies, and the protectors of Serbia, before the gates of Constantinople. They know quite well that the fall of Constantinople would annihilate Turkey, diminish German political influence in the Balkans, and give the Allies a new stimulus. This turn of events has placed the Bulgarian diplomats in a most embarrassing position and Bulgaria in an *impasse*!

What is to be done, then, at present, to secure advantage to Bulgaria? Maintain its neutrality? That is useless! Attack Serbia? She is shielded by great and powerful protectors! Attack Turkey? Germany is still there to oppose that,—and her faithful agent, King Ferdinand, in particular, would not consent to betray his nation, that is, Germany. And it is presumable that should Radoslavov submit a plan similar to that which Venizelos submitted to King Constantine, he would be obliged to resign.

No matter, then, from what point one views the situation of Bulgaria, it is found to be most difficult. However, neither the King nor the other leaders of Bulgarian policy will escape with impunity should Bulgaria fail to obtain some real benefit, for the brave Bulgarian people will some day demand an accounting of their leaders,—the recent attempted assassination at Sofia was, for that matter, really nothing but a manifestation of popular discontent. In order, then, to escape from this difficult situation and reap a probable benefit for Bulgaria, will her statesmen make an attack upon Greece?

In surveying the embarrassing position of Bulgaria, such a possibility is, in my judg-

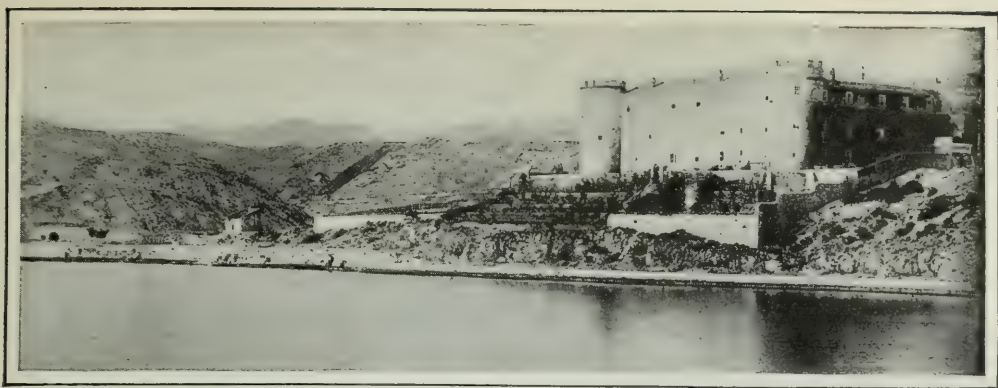
ment, excluded. It is to be hoped, however, that public opinion, which is altogether on the side of Russia, will gain the upper hand and compel the Bulgarian leaders to range themselves with Russia, securing for their country thereby the Turkish territory which the Bulgarians lost in the Balkan War.

RUMANIA IN AGITATION

The presence of the fleet of the Allies in the Dardanelles, Russia's preparation to send an army of attack to Constantinople, and the recent Russian experiences in Austria-Hungary have intensely aroused the Rumanian people, who desire to abandon neutrality and gain possession of the Austrian provinces inhabited by Rumanians. The government still remains undecided and mysterious, but everything points towards its yielding to the popular desire of the nation as soon as Italy should enter into action, and that country is indeed preparing to lay her hand upon the Austrian provinces for whose possession she is so ardently anxious. The entrance of Italy into the war will not fail to influence Rumania and, consequently, Greece and Bulgaria, who will likewise wish to abandon neutrality and follow Italy's course.



IN THIS MAP THE AREAS MARKED "TO SERBIA," "TO BULGARIA," "TO GREECE," AND "TO RUMANIA" SHOW THE CHANGES RESULTING FROM THE TWO RECENT BALKAN WARS. ALBANIA WAS THEN CREATED, AND MONTENEGRO GAINED SOME TERRITORY. THE MAP WILL BE FOUND CONVENIENT IN READING MR. STODDARD'S ARTICLE ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES.



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE PORT OF FIUME, ONE OF AUSTRIA'S POSSESSIONS ON THE EASTERN SHORE OF THE ADRIATIC

ITALY AND HER RIVALS

THE ITALIAN PROGRAM OF EXPANSION IN ITS RELATION TO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY AND THE BALKAN STATES

BY T. LOTHROP STODDARD

[Our readers will find in this article a succinct and exceedingly valuable analysis of the political, racial, and territorial problems involved in Italy's entrance of the war as an associate of the Allies against the Teutonic empires and Turkey. In our issue for last November Mr. Stoddard wrote upon Italy's past relations to the European powers, and presented the arguments for and against her neutrality in the present war, as then dividing public opinion.—THE EDITOR.]

THE following article aims at giving a brief analysis of the political possibilities involved in Italy's entrance into the European war and the reactions of this new situation, particularly upon the Balkan States. It leaves technical problems of strategy for treatment elsewhere in this issue, confining itself to the political aspects of the question.

Multifarious as are Italy's aims and aspirations in the present war, they divide logically according to geographical situation. These fields of Italian interest are: (1) South Tyrol, (2) the Austro-Hungarian Adriatic littoral, (3) Albania, (4) the Levant. Each of these fields presents such special problems that separate treatment is necessary.

SOUTH TYROL, A TEUTONIC COMMUNITY

The Austrian province of Tyrol is geographically divided into two distinct parts by the high mountain range known as the Tyrolean Alps, running roughly east and west along latitude 47 and pierced by only one practicable gateway, the famous Brenner Pass. The greater part of the province thus lies south of the range and is known as "South Tyrol." Its rivers flow into Italy and the climate is distinctly southern in character. The ideal strategic nature of the Tyrolean Alps has caused Italians to see in them the "natural" frontier of Italy and

to demand the acquisition of the whole of South Tyrol right up to the Brenner Pass.

Unfortunately for Italian aspirations, the geographical configuration of Tyrol by no means corresponds to the racial character of its inhabitants. The greater part of South Tyrol is inhabited by a population of Teutonic stock racially as keenly self-conscious as any people in the world. Only the extreme southern part of the province (the district known as "Trentino") is racially Italian. This fact must be kept clearly in mind, owing to Italian efforts to befog the issue by using the term "Trentino" to describe the whole region south of the Brenner Pass, thus inducing the idea that the entire country is racially Italian. As a matter of fact nothing could be farther from the truth.

The Trentino proper, despite the fact that its political history has virtually never been bound up with that of the peninsula of Italy, is a thoroughly Italian region, and the majority of its inhabitants would welcome Italian annexation. But about half way between the cities of Trent and Botzen the race-frontier runs clear and sharp athwart the country; and everything north of this line is consciously, aggressively German.

These Teutonic South Tyrolers are animated not merely by an intense race pride and local patriotism, but also by a truly

medieval dynastic loyalty to the House of Hapsburg. Andreas Hofer remains the national hero of Tyrol,—and Andreas Hofer was born well south of the Brenner Pass. Every year a folk-play depicting the life of Andreas Hofer is produced at the South Tyrolean city of Meran, and anyone who has there noted the fervor of the peasant-actors, comparable to that of the Passion Players of Oberammergau, knows that the old spirit lives on unchanged.

For this reason an Italian conquest of South Tyrol would unquestionably involve a frightful race-tragedy. I know the country well, and I am certain that the Teutonic South Tyrolese would prefer death to Italian rule. The only way by which Italy could secure her strategic Brenner line would be the rooting out of this essentially fanatical population and its replacement by Italians.

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN ADRIATIC COAST

This field presents in itself a whole nexus of problems. Geographically it is a very long but extremely narrow ribbon of rocky coast, isles, and headlands, running some four hundred miles along the eastern Adriatic shore, backed by lofty mountains which cut it off from easy connection with the hinterland. Its past history has been highly complex.

That part nearest the Italian frontier, with its capital Trieste, has, like Trentino, been for centuries politically connected with the Teutonic world. The other chief east-coast city, Fiume, has been similarly connected with Hungary. Other districts, like Ragusa, were independent states till comparatively recent times.

Italy's political claims upon this region are derived from the Republic of Venice, which once possessed much of this littoral, notably the western half of the Istrian peninsula jutting out between Trieste and Fiume, the major part of Dalmatia, and most of the island fringe off the coasts. There can be no doubt that until recently the whole coast was culturally Italian.

The hinterland, however, has always been Slav, and since the Slav awakening in the middle of the last century, Italianism has steadily lost ground till to-day it survives only in the larger coast towns and on the isles and headlands. This loss of old Italian culture-ground has tortured Italian patriots, while the political consequences have alarmed Italian statesmen.

One of the cardinal points of Italian foreign policy is predominance in the Adriatic.

Unfortunately the western or Italian shore is devoid of deep-water harbors. There is to-day not a single Italian Adriatic port capable of serving as a "dreadnought" naval base. The east coast, however, abounds in splendid and easily defended harbors of this type.

Now the complete defeat of Austria in the present war would normally mean the union of all the South Slav peoples in some sort of Serbo-Croat Confederacy which might have a population of 15,000,000 souls. The natural coast-line of that new State would be just the present Austro-Hungarian littoral, whose racial complexion is, as we have seen, a broken string of Italian patches upon a solid Slav background. Trieste is a striking case in point. The city itself is predominantly Italian, but the enclosing hills are Slav, and even within the walls the Slav element is gaining on the Italian.

In view of all this, Italy feels that she must take some preventive action, since a triumphant young Serbo-Croat Empire (itself the ally of an enlarged Russian Empire), once in possession of the Adriatic east-coast harbors, might be a greater menace than the present Austria-Hungary. It is obvious that were Italy to tip the scales in favor of the Allies they could not well deny her a free hand in the Adriatic; and Adriatic supremacy would mean a tremendous triumph for Italy.

Still, there is a reverse side to the picture. We already know the fatal hatred aroused in Serbia by Austria's refusal to let her obtain access to the Adriatic. How much more dangerous would be the hatred of a Greater Serbia for an Italy which had stepped into Austria's shoes! It may be, of course, that Italy will resign the Dalmatian harbors and run the risk of a future Serb navy rather than invite a Serb vendetta.

But even then her troubles are not over. If she takes Fiume she shuts off Hungary from the sea, while the possession of the lone Austrian port of Trieste will imply Austria's economic strangulation. Of course it can be argued that in case of an Allied victory Austria-Hungary will cease to exist; but, even admitting this, some power or powers have got to own the vast Danube hinterlands, and these powers, whosoever they may be, will press towards their natural sea outlets as inevitably as water seeks its own level. Thus Italy's acquisition of any part of the present Austro-Hungarian Adriatic littoral is fraught with future perils, said perils increasing in direct proportion to the extent of acquired territory.



GENERAL VIEW OF TRENT

ALBANIA AS A PRIZE OF WAR

Albania has long been earmarked by both Italy and Austria. A region of considerable natural resources, inhabited by a race of high-land clansmen who have kept the country totally undeveloped by their endless internecine wars, this weak land of anarchy has been a tempting prize. In general, Austria had established her influence in northern Albania, while Italy was predominant in the center and south. In South Albania, it is true, the Greeks also had claims, but Greece was too small to stand in Italy's path.

The question naturally arises why Italy and Austria did not settle their disputes by dividing Albania between them. This would probably have been done but for the fact that Albania stretches clear down to the Straits of Otranto, the narrow waters connecting the Adriatic with the Mediterranean. Right at this point is located the magnificent harbor of Avlona. This obviously made any Austro-Italian division of Albania impossible. Were Italy to possess Avlona she would completely bottle up Austria by controlling both sides of the narrows; were Austria in possession she would dominate the straits because the flat Italian shore has no harbor fit for a corresponding naval base.

At the present moment, Austria being tem-

porarily out of the running, Italy has seized Avlona and various other points on the Albanian coast, and evidently intends to claim Albania as one of the spoils of war. She thus gains an enormous advantage by definitely closing the Adriatic; but, as in the Dalmatian field, there are corresponding disadvantages. If Austria survives she must, sooner or later, challenge this closing of her only exit to the outer world, while if she is replaced by a Greater Serbia the latter will inevitably step into Austria's shoes.

For that matter, the present Serbia has very definite Albanian aspirations of her own. In the Balkan War of 1912 she conquered most of Albania, nearly precipitated the present European cataclysm by her reluctance to withdraw, and retained clear rights to an economic outlet through Albania to the Adriatic Sea. At this very moment Serbian columns are again penetrating the Albanian hills. Is not this perhaps a check on the threatened Italian occupation of Albania? And, if the half-dead Serbia of to-day deems it necessary to divert some of her scanty forces for such a purpose, what would be the attitude of a Greater Serbia to-morrow? Furthermore, there are the Greek claims on South Albania, worthless to-day but perhaps presentable at some Italian hour of peril in the future.

THE LEVANT

Italy, besides possessing distinct memories of Rome, considers herself the heir of Venice and Genoa, once predominant in the Eastern Mediterranean, and ever since the Italo-Turkish War of 1911-12 she has displayed marked interest in this heritage. Her seizure of Rhodes and the island chain known as the "Dodekanese," stretching well out across the Egean Sea, has given her a firm foothold which she has been busily strengthening by every means in her power.

The adjoining southwest corner of Asia Minor has been frankly staked out as an Italian "sphere of influence," and this in turn has proved but the further base for an intensely active commercial and cultural campaign throughout the entire Levant, from Smyrna to Alexandria. Both England and France have shown considerable uneasiness and have done their best to get Italy out of her Egean foothold, but in vain.

Italy has made it clear that she intends to stay; and in the diplomatic duel which took place between Sir Edward Grey and the late Marquis di San Giuliano early in 1914, Sir Edward came off distinctly second best. This determination to play a major rôle in the Levant has unquestionably had a great deal to do with Italy's recent adhesion to the Allies' side.

The Allies have formally condemned Turkey to death, while the Teutonic powers stand for a revived and strengthened Turkey which would bode ill for Italian hopes in southwest Asia Minor and elsewhere. With the whole Ottoman Empire as it were on their auction block, the Allies have naturally had much to offer, and we may be sure that the shrewd Italian diplomats drove a close bargain for any assistance promised in Asia Minor or the Dardanelles.

THE DEMANDS OF GREECE

It is evident that the vigorous entrance of a new power like Italy into the "Eastern Question" must arouse keen interest on all sides. This is true of all the Balkan States, but it is especially true of Greece. For Greek interests are not confined to the Balkan peninsula; they stretch over the entire Levant, and are not merely political in character but economic and cultural as well.

And, to all these Hellenic aspirations, Italy is the preëminently dangerous foe. We have already seen how Greek and Italian interests conflict in South Albania. But this is the merest side-issue compared with their truly momentous clash throughout the east Medi-

terranean basin. If Italy considers herself the lawful successor of Rome, Venice, and Genoa, Greece holds herself the heir of both ancient Hellas and the medieval Byzantine Empire. And these historic memories are reënforced by highly practical considerations.

Everywhere the two races are in sharp economic and cultural conflict. From Constantinople to the Egyptian Sudan, Greek merchants vie with Italian merchants, Greek banks with Italian banks, Greek steamship lines with Italian steamship lines. Even schools and hospitals are pressed into the service. Everything portends a thoroughgoing Greco-Italian rivalry as keen as that now being fought out between England and Germany; and the Greek and Italian peoples are coming to hate each other in the heartiest fashion.

The Italian occupation of Rhodes and the Dodekanese has made much bad blood. These islands are thoroughly Greek, ardently desire annexation to Hellas, and hate their Italian masters. Furthermore, the adjacent corner of Asia Minor, now patently staked out by Italy for her own, is also predominantly Greek in character, and has long been earmarked by Greece as a future Hellenic province.

It is highly probable that King Constantine's refusal to aid the Allies last spring was partly occasioned by Allied refusals to promise Greece just these Asia Minor territories. Should the Allies now have given their consent to the realization of Italy's aspirations in this quarter, the effect on Greek public opinion will be striking, and it would not be at all surprising if Mr. Venizelos should return to power the partisan of a very cool neutrality.

THE OUTLOOK FOR BULGARIA

Since Bulgaria's interests are confined to the Balkan peninsula, she is not directly concerned in Italy's Levantine aspirations. The only way by which Italy's entrance into the war can vitally affect her attitude is the possibility of a Turkish collapse through the landing of Italian armies in Asia Minor and the Dardanelles. Bulgaria has no wish to see such an event take place. She prefers a reasonably strong Turkey as an ally against her enemies, Greece and Serbia, who took away what she desires more than anything else,—Macedonia and its Bulgar population.

Of course she would not mind having Adrianople once more, but in Bulgarian eyes Adrianople is dust in the balances as against Macedonia. To Turkey, on the other hand,

Adrianople is only less precious than Constantinople itself, and were Bulgaria to seize it she would make Turkey her mortal enemy and would thus have to abandon all hopes of gaining Macedonia by some future appeal to arms. However, if the landing of large Italian armies in Asia Minor and the Dardanelles should make unsupported Turkish resistance hopeless, Bulgaria might make the best of a bad business and seize Adrianople before it could fall into the Allies' hands.

Yet even this is by no means certain. An Allied triumph in the Near East probably signifies Russia at Constantinople, and this in turn means a Bulgaria gripped fast between a Greater Russia and a Greater Serbia, Russia's ally. For Bulgaria this prospect is a veritable nightmare, to avert which she would risk much. Should the Teutonic powers continue their victorious course against the Russian armies in Galicia and Poland, it would not be at all surprising to see Bulgaria strike in on Turkey's side, thus redressing the balance against Italy. This would be still more likely if Allied concessions to Italy in Asia Minor should drive Greece into sullen neutrality.

RUMANIA'S DILEMMA

Like Bulgaria, Rumania is only indirectly affected by Italy's entrance into the European war, though indirect effects sometimes have far-reaching consequences. Rumania's position is much like that of the traditional ass between the two bales of hay. To the west of her lies Austro-Hungarian Transylvania, to the east Russian Bessarabia, both of these provinces inhabited predominantly, though by no means exclusively, by Ru-

manians. Of course Rumania would like them both, but since this is impossible she has been cautiously waiting to see which appeared the safer prey.

Last winter, when the Russians seemed about to overrun Hungary, Rumania visibly stirred for a spring at Transylvania. Later on, the Teutonic victories at her very gates gave her pause. To-day she is closely watching the effect of Italy's onslaught upon Austria-Hungary. She is also interested in possible happenings at the Dardanelles.

Rumania, like Bulgaria, would greatly dislike to see Russia at Constantinople. She would then lie squarely in Russia's overland path, and should Austria-Hungary give way to a Slavized Central Europe, Rumania, even with Transylvania, would be but an isolated islet in the Slav ocean. Of course there are strong internal cross-currents which may modify her decision. But, looking at the matter from the standpoint of purely foreign policy, we may expect something like this: If Constantinople falls and the Teutonic allies fail in their stroke against Russia, Rumania will almost certainly strike for Transylvania. If Constantinople stands and Russia crumples up in Galicia and Poland, Rumania will as certainly strike for Bessarabia. In any other event Rumania will probably continue her present neutrality, although, as I have said, there are internal factors which may tip the scales one way or the other.

Such are the main political possibilities involved in Italy's entrance into the European war. They are, as we have seen, both far-reaching and complex. What the actual results will be, only time and the fortune of Italian arms can disclose.



CITY SQUARE IN TRIESTE SHOWING THE MAXIMILIAN MONUMENT

MOSLEMS AND THE WAR

BY REV. GEORGE F. HERRICK, D.D.

[This is the fourth in a series of articles written by Dr. Herrick for this REVIEW. The titles of the three preceding are as follows: "The Turkish Crisis and American Interests," October, 1914; "Turkey and Her Friends," December, 1914; "Constantinople and the Turks," April, 1915.—THE EDITOR.]

THE period of time in which we live is full of surprises. We are growing accustomed to the unexpected. Wise men hesitate to assume the rôle of the prophet. It is more than most of us are able to do to measure the significance of events as they occur. Any attempt, therefore, to throw light upon the attitude of the vast number of Mohammedans affected by the war may seem rash.

But if we are able, by personal contact, and by following the public utterances, guarded though they may be, of representative Mohammedans, to keep in vital touch with events and conditions in the Moslem world, we may perhaps discover that changes have been taking place in recent years among Mussulman peoples in Asia and Africa, changes greatly accelerated by the present war, which are of profound significance in the evolution of human history.

FAILURE OF THE JIHAD CALL

The men in the government saddle at Constantinople last November issued a call to Moslems everywhere to rally in revolt against their alien rulers. The call was lost in the air. It met with response nowhere. The frantic effort failed utterly. It is important for us, if it be possible, to find the real meaning of this outcome of a plan from which so much was hoped.

We have been accustomed for many years to see on the part of the Moslems of Turkey, of Egypt, and of India an acceptance of aid from Christian nations in material things accompanied by a firm attitude of fidelity to their ancestral faith, and with a revulsion from our religion.

Very few even of the most intelligent among them have been able in the past to understand Christian teaching or to appreciate the constituent elements of truly Christian character.

The events now taking place in Europe have intensified Moslem revulsion from European Christianity and deepened their conviction of the supreme excellence of their own religion.

Why, then, have Moslems who are subjects of Christian governments turned a deaf ear to the call of the Calif and remained loyal to the governments under which they live?

We may interpret the loyalty to their rulers of Moslems under the dominion of England, France, and Russia as meaning that they know that listening to Turkey's appeal would imperil their material interests. Yes, but is this a sufficient explanation? It is very far from sufficient.

Men of the East have from time immemorial been accustomed to a gov-



ONE OF THE ULEMA—"THE LEARNED"

(The Ulema are the Moslem doctors of law, from whom the higher civil officers are also chosen. Their head is the Turkish Sheikh-ul-Islam, a state functionary second only to the Grand Vizier)

ernmental administration and to judicial procedure that made more of personal claims and money inducements than of the demands of right and justice, where, therefore, the rich had every advantage over the poor.

The rich men and men of rank in India and Egypt have of late years often been dazed at finding that neither rank nor wealth could move a judge a hair's-breadth from what the law and equity demanded. This has not made them love their Western rulers, but it has made them respect and trust them. Their experience under just government has now for two generations profoundly penetrated their thought and life.

The Rev. Dr. J. P. Jones, whose judgment concerning conditions in India is of the greatest weight, writes me as follows:

Nearly half of the Moslem world is within the British Empire, and the appeal of the Turk for a Jihad was addressed chiefly to Moslems of that empire. It failed in India because the Moslems of India are led by men largely trained in Anglo-Saxon culture and ideas and imbued with many of the ideals of the British, which means ideals that are distinctly Christian.

The British Empire in this war is reaping the harvest of appreciation and loyalty from all its subject peoples, because it has so faithfully sowed among them the rich blessings of its own culture and civilization, the blessings of human rights and Christian principles.

HUMANITY OF THE MOSLEM

The Oriental Moslem is a shrewd judge of conduct. He may himself use language to conceal his thought, but he will applaud and trust a man whose yea is yea and whose nay is nay. Till a few years ago he was very suspicious of the emissaries of Western Christianity who had come to reside in his neighborhood. To-day he trusts these men far more than he does his own co-religionists.

It is, happily, a fact that the civil representatives of Western peoples in Eastern lands have, in recent years, generally been worthy examples of the high moral standards of Western civilization.

One reason for the recoil of Moslems and other Orientals from the war in Europe is their horror when brought face to face with the results of modern militarism. Asia has been many times overrun by conquering armies. But where in all the centuries can a parallel be found to what is now witnessed in Europe as the result of waging war with the scientific equipment of the present age? The militaristic doctrine and practise of Central Europe are utterly repellent to the Oriental mind.

Mohammedans have been guilty of killing innocent people, but it has been under provocation and when inflamed by passion. They do not deliberately *plan* the indiscriminate slaughter of people by thousands.

The commander of the Fourth Corps of the Turkish Army uses these words in his proclamation to the peoples of Palestine:

I order the Mohammedan races, who form the majority, to make proof of their patriotic sentiments by cordial relations with the Israelite and Christian elements of the population.

The goods, the life, the honor, and especially the individual rights of the subjects of the states at war with us are also under the guarantee of our national honor. I therefore shall not allow the least aggression against these either.

How is this from a military leader of a Moslem state?

PRACTICAL VS. PROFESSED CHRISTIANITY

We have as yet barely touched the main factor of the change to which we would point in the new attitude of Mohammedans.

The leaders of thought in the Moslem world, while pointing the finger of scorn at the "Christian civilization of Europe," have distinguished between that and the Christianity of Christ's gospel as it is illustrated in the lives, the teaching, and the practical Christian philanthropy of Christians from the farther West who are living in their country now for many years in close and friendly relations with themselves. These Moslems, especially in these later years, have appreciated and profited by those philanthropic institutions, schools, hospitals, relief works established and conducted by these Christians.

To gain the confidence of people whose religion, language, and social customs are radically different from our own requires time, patience, and sincere sympathy, and we hardly expected Mohammedans so soon to distinguish between genuine Christianity and that which in Europe assumes the Christian name.

The number and the present strength of American philanthropic institutions established at almost every strategic center in Egypt and Western Asia are still to most Americans little known, yet these institutions are the chief factors of the emergence of the Moslems of those lands from the darkness and apathy and ignorance which have



AHMED VEFIK PASHA

(From whom the site of Robert College, in Constantinople, was purchased. He was a well-known, learned, and liberal Turkish diplomat)

prevailed for centuries. The present war is a tremendous eye-opener to those people. Suddenly and rudely awakened by the horrors of the war, groping in the dark, they cling to those they have learned to trust, to the true representatives of a vital Christianity, of a brotherhood which is all-inclusive. The East and the West have met in recognition of the fact that they are alike children of one family, the family of God.

The people of the West have, for the last two or three decades, been rushing so madly after material goods and material gain that they have been blind to the fact that many men of the East, naturally deeply if grossly religious, are making surprising progress in a true appreciation of veritable spiritual values.

THE ORIENTAL A PALIMPSEST

Their desire for emancipation from Western domination is due to the fact that they possess aspirations which Western material prosperity fails to satisfy. Before we echo the words of a popular author, "East and West can never meet," would it not be well for us to be sure we understand what are the aspirations of thoughtful Mohammedans? The Moslem mind, the Oriental personality generally, is a palimpsest. We read the writing on the surface and think we know our man. No, the real man is not known till the text, which custom and fear and oppression have overlaid, is by long and close acquaintance and intelligent sympathy rendered legible.

The events now taking place in Europe are at once, for the Moslem, shattering European ideals, and turning his sympathetic attention to a more favorable examination of those Christian ideals illustrated before his eyes by those Christian philanthropists who have made their home in his country.

As to the masses of the Moslem people of the world, the vast majority of them are altogether illiterate. Neither the residence of Christians of the West among them nor

the efforts of those Christians for their enlightenment have as yet resulted in any marked change in their attitude towards Christians and Christianity.

But in the case of the rapidly increasing number of men who read and think it is hardly possible to overstate the significance and the extent of the change which is taking place in the attitude of these men towards what they see to be essential and vital in Christianity. Even the violence of the opposition of some among them to the emissaries of Christianity shows how their confidence in the value of their ancestral faith has been shaken.

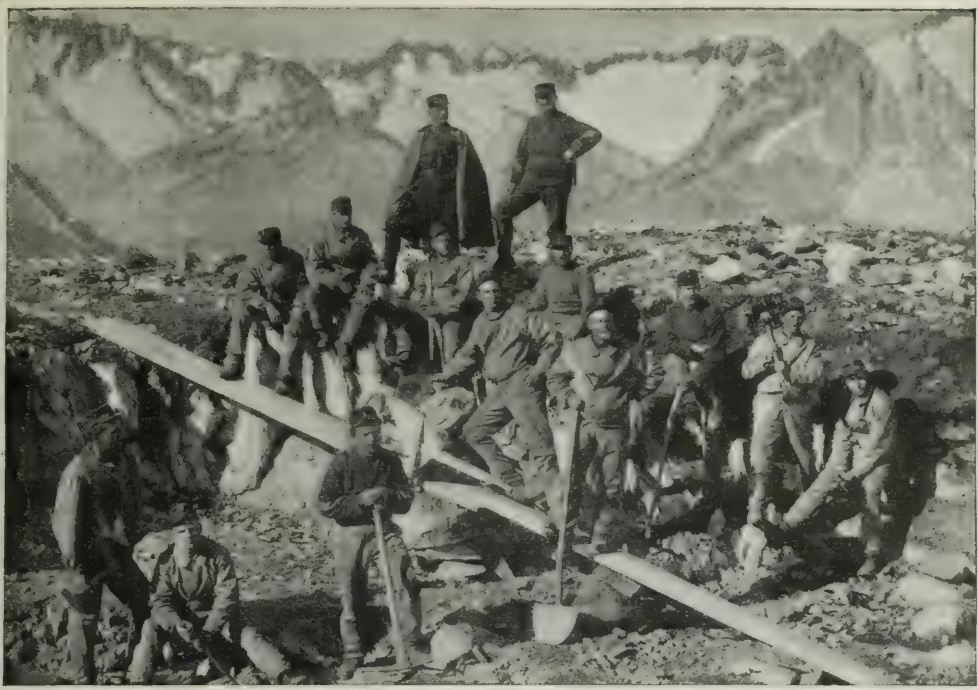
It is not the material progress and prosperity of Christian nations which will induce Moslems to change their religion. The unique personality of Christ and the growing conviction of inquiring minds that He alone can satisfy the aspirations of the human soul have begun to draw Moslems to Himself, and the shock of this awful war will contribute to the same result.

AMERICANS AND THE NEARER EAST

A life-long residence of an American Christian in the Nearer East favors his anticipating what the future will reveal, and perhaps to give utterance to his anticipations will do no harm. The records of *Moslem empire* belong to the past of human history. The final scrolls are in the process of folding up. For Moslem peoples a brighter and better future is beginning to unfold. When the war is over, the justice and beneficence of those powers under whose government the large majority of Moslems now live will be gratefully appreciated by them. And in the countries of the Nearer East the actual work of remolding society, of encouraging, educating, uplifting the suffering, distracted, but still virile and hopeful races of our fellow-men will be found to be providentially committed to philanthropic Americans.

The people are still there in their great need, and *we are there among them*.





Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

PREPARING THE BASE FOR A PIECE OF HEAVY ARTILLERY IN THE GOTTHARD DISTRICT

NEUTRAL SWITZERLAND

BY JOHN MARTIN VINCENT

[Professor Vincent, who holds the Chair of European History at the Johns Hopkins University, has been an authority on Swiss institutions for many years. His "State and Federal Government in Switzerland," the product of much research, was published in the Johns Hopkins "Studies in History and Political Science" as long ago as 1891. Dr. Vincent is one of the few Americans who are thoroughly informed on the details of Swiss administration and history.—THE EDITOR.]

FROM the beginning of the present war the problems of Switzerland have been serious, but since the entrance of Italy into the struggle the situation has become unique. A nation is completely surrounded by belligerents, without access to the sea and with no contact whatever with the outside neutral world. The immediate problems are the preservation of Swiss neutrality and the maintenance of supplies for food and industry.

The neutrality of Switzerland is recognized by international treaties and by political practise since 1815, but the tradition is still older. For two centuries before this the state had ceased to take sides as a nation, yet the enlistment of Swiss soldiers in foreign armies had continued, and at times the country was so dominated by outsiders that its neutrality was hardly visible. Such was the case in the time of Napoleon I., and in conse-

quence the powers in 1813 demanded that Switzerland should show her good faith by maintaining an army of at least 30,000 to prevent the use of her territory for military operations. For a century, therefore, the Swiss have been in coöperation with the other nations of Europe in upholding a principle which is vital to their own existence and important to the welfare of their neighbors.

NATURE'S BARRIERS

National defense is no light burden upon a state of less than four million inhabitants, although the nature of the country lends assistance. The mountainous boundaries which surround the Swiss on three sides are valuable allies, but the low-lying country on the north from Basel to the Lake of Constance is seriously exposed. This is the part which in the past has tempted the Germans and French to try flank movements, and

where the Rhine would be only a hindrance, not a prevention of invasion. Between 1663 and 1710 at least seven expeditions of considerable military importance marched across that portion of Switzerland, without regard to the feelings of the inhabitants. Since 1815 the neutrality of that region has been, on the whole, observed, but the Swiss have maintained the greatest possible watchfulness during periods of war.

The Alpine passes are approached by fine, broad roads of comparatively easy grade and could be readily mounted by armies and their artillery, but this must be done in single column and the risk to an enemy would be tremendous. At several points long tunnels admit railways and the obstacles to peaceful commerce have been removed. No war has brought the tunnel to the test of defense, but every preparation has been made to stop the entrance of an enemy. Elaborate fortifications upon the St. Gotthard command both the road and the railway, while the Rhone valley is defended by similar works at St. Maurice and Martigny.

On the southeastern border the Swiss soldiers must stand within a few yards of the road and watch the Italians and Austrians contend for the Stelvio Pass at a height of 10,000 feet. On the south the boundary is complicated by the lakes which extend from Italy or France into Swiss territory. Along Lake Geneva a wide, neutral zone has been maintained for years, both in commerce and in defense, but the situation is none the less delicate between Switzerland and France.

HEAVY COST OF MOBILIZATION

Since August 3 the Swiss have been obliged to assume a posture of defense along the whole of their extremely tortuous boundary. At that time the war department practically took charge of the railways. The change from the civil to the military situa-

tion was a comparatively easy matter, because the greater part of the system is owned and managed by the government. After the first mobilization traffic resumed something of its normal regularity, but for a fortnight the public knew not the use of rails.

The cost of the occupation of its frontier is rising to a tremendous sum for a small nation. In 1870-71 the expense of mobilization was estimated at about ten million francs; and that war increased the public debt altogether about 15,600,000 francs. These sums now seem ridiculous. Already

the Swiss Government has placed one loan of thirty million francs and another of fifty millions, yet the solidity of the country is well proved under severe test by the wise actions of its financial institutions, led by the Federal National Bank.

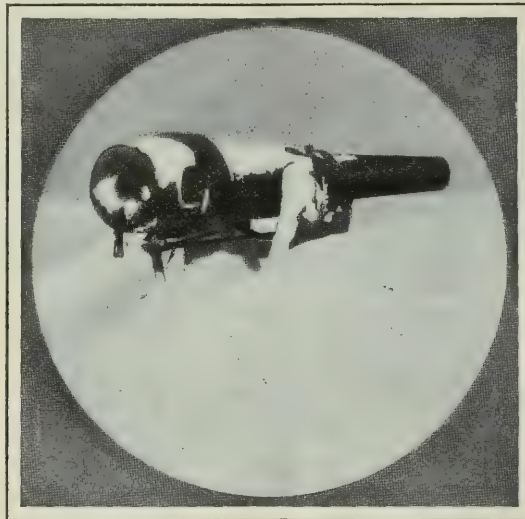
PASSAGE OF FOREIGN TROOPS FORBIDDEN

The attitude of the Swiss Government toward all belligerents has been absolutely correct. Its defini-

tion of neutrality has been slowly perfected during the past half-century. Every trace of the historic military capitulation with outside nations has been removed. The passage of foreign troops is prohibited. The new Confederation of 1848 attempted at first to stop the passage of persons not in uniform, but in view of the risk of thus acting in the service of one or another belligerent, it is now left to each country to prevent the escape of hostile reservists.

SALE OF GUNS AND AMMUNITION PROHIBITED

In other countries of Europe the sale of arms and war materials by neutral contractors to warring nations is permissible. Switzerland has attempted to prevent this traffic, but the prohibition has been actually limited to guns and ammunition. Ordinary provisions are not stopped, and even the sale



A SWISS HOWITZER IN THE JURA MOUNTAINS, SO MOUNTED THAT IT CAN BE POINTED EITHER TOWARD GERMANY OR TOWARD FRANCE



© American Press Association

SWISS TROOPS MARCHING THROUGH THE CITY OF BASLE

of horses and harness is unrestricted. The situation shows an attempt to avoid trouble more than the maintenance of a new code of war. The fact that the sale of powder and explosives is a government monopoly would make the authorities cautious. The state also manufactures its own munitions in two large federal establishments.

The passing of goods from one foreign country to another through Switzerland offers a serious problem, and this is only slightly simplified by the entrance of Italy into the war. Hitherto no restrictions have been placed on through freight, but traffic between Italy and Germany will be stopped at the source. As to communication the government has not attempted to stop the mails, but is better able to regulate the use of the telegraph and telephone. Swiss territory may not be used as a base for obtaining or spreading information for hostile purposes, either by wire or by aviators. The Allies have already apologised for unintentional trespass over an invisible atmospheric frontier.

MATERIALS THAT MUST BE IMPORTED

The most serious question is the maintenance of the food supply, for Switzerland does not raise enough for her own use. Not a pound of coal or iron is produced in the country. Supplies of cotton and wool must

come from outside to keep the industries busy, and Switzerland must depend on the good graces of one or another of the belligerents. Newspapers last month reported that arrangements had been made with Italy permitting materials to come through from the Mediterranean.

Switzerland may suffer from the violent partisanship shown by the press. The German-speaking population is the more numerous, and in spite of the government's repeated warnings public expression on both sides has been bitter. A few newspapers have been suppressed, but now the good will of the Allies must be assiduously cultivated, for they control the sources of foreign supply.

HELPING FUGITIVES AND PRISONERS OF WAR

At the same time the Swiss have rendered enormous services to both sides in the care of fugitives and exchange of prisoners. The French inhabitants on the war front have been shipped into Switzerland by thousands in a most forlorn condition. The care of these victims has appealed deeply to public and private charity. The municipality of Zürich alone appropriated \$30,000 a month to help the foreign refugees on their way to southern France.

In the midst of all this turmoil there is not the slightest probability that the Swiss will

be led into war on one side or another. The three races are a unit in the defense of their neutrality. Germans, French and Italians would rise as one man to resist an invader, and for this purpose they have perfected a military system which evokes the respect of larger nations.

THE MILITIA SYSTEM

The national militia calls into service every able-bodied youth in the confederation, and those who are exempted through physical disability must pay a tax instead. Actual training begins at the age of twenty with the school of recruits, which lasts from sixty-five to ninety days during the first year, according to the branch of service. For the subsequent seven or eight years the ordinary recruit is called out for eleven days annually and is then excused from further training. Officers continue longer as instructors. For twelve years the soldier is classed in the "Auszug" or "Élite," for eight years more in the "Landwehr" or second defense, and for another eight years in the "Landsturm." Liability for service ends at the age of forty-eight, but all males may be called out in case of dire necessity.

As a matter of fact gymnastic training with the service in view begins in the schools,

and every effort is made to produce a vigorous nation from youth to middle age. During the years of liability every man must have a fixed amount of rifle practise, and shooting clubs are encouraged in every way. The national "Schützenfest" is an institution that goes back to the days of the crossbow, and every village has its targets. The soldier keeps his outfit in his own possession and is instantly ready.

The financial and industrial burden is reduced by the short periods of service, and at the same time every citizen is instructed in the art of war. No military class is created by this process, for no standing army is required, and the professional officers are comparatively few. Switzerland can mobilize about 200,000 men for actual combat, with about 60,000 more in the Landsturm. The same percentage to population would raise an active army of 6,000,000 in the United States.

Swiss neutrality is based on the traditions of six hundred years of independence and a century of freedom from entangling alliances, but the people do not for an instant leave it all to the good will of their neighbors. A citizen army to which every man belongs stands ready to discourage war by visible and adequate preparation.



Photograph by International News Service

SWISS BOYS RECEIVING PREPARATORY MILITARY INSTRUCTION

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION IN NEW YORK

BY WILLIAM H. HOTCHKISS

(Former Superintendent of Insurance of New York)

THE New York Legislature of 1915 has adjourned, and,—strange to say,—the New York Workmen's Compensation Law still survives! Indeed, now that the chlorine cloud of asphyxiating misrepresentation has passed, we can, with recovered breath, survey the law and calmly report the losses. The writer is one who finds no damage at all, but, rather, a marked advance. The legislature might well have done more. But neither it nor the executive whose action led to the three amendatory laws should be,—as they have been,—condemned for what they did.

THE NEW INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

Now, what, really, has been done by the three bills which created such a furore?

Just this. By one of them, the Labor and Compensation Departments were consolidated, at a great reduction in their combined cost and with the elimination of many overlapping functions. The new department is headed by a commission of five, and contains within itself a supervisory and consulting Industrial Council of unsalaried members, which must be equally representative of the employer and the employee classes. Thus, New York's new Industrial Commission is the most up-to-date and hopeful of our governmental agencies charged with the welfare of labor.

And, yet, this best of plans was for a time hooted down by the representatives and friends of labor. Strong pressure was brought to bear upon the legislature to prevent its passage. Threats of reprisals on election day were boldly and exultingly made; a fund of \$100,000 to accomplish this purpose was significantly proclaimed. The Association for Labor Legislation, with its splendid record of consistent effort for the betterment of labor statutes, was dubbed "The Association for Labor Assassination,"—because, forsooth, it had drafted and advanced the bill. The executive was vociferously,—almost with threats,—urged to veto. But to no avail. The bill became a law.

And, now that it is in force, Governor Whitman has met his critics by the appointment of a Commission of recognized merit and without partisan obligation. On this Commission are, as representing employees, labor leaders of national repute, John Mitchell (who was a member of the old Workmen's Compensation Commission) and James M. Lynch (until recently Commissioner of Labor); as representing employers, William H. H. Rogers and Louis Wiard, two prominent manufacturers of Western New York; with Edward P. Lyon, of Brooklyn, a lawyer, to hold the scales, if necessary, between the two classes. Mr. Mitchell is chairman and has been given the longest term.

Thus, the new Commission, with its far-reaching powers of inspection, for accident and disease prevention, in the compelling of industrial and safety reports, toward the mediation and arbitration of labor disputes, and, perhaps, most important of all, over the administration of New York's advanced workmen's compensation law, began its work on June first. Despite the travail of its birth, it is already a vigorous and hopeful agency of government in a field where heretofore there has been too much partisanship, too intricate machinery and too great a development on but one side of the correlated problem of the employer and the employee.

The consolidation act was not, however, strictly, an amendment to the workmen's compensation law. It simply reorganized and revolutionized the administering body named in that law.

AMENDMENTS OF THE COMPENSATION LAW

The other two bills amended the workmen's compensation law itself. By them that law was so changed that, instead of bureaucratic settlements and bureaucratic payments of compensation, hereafter all payments will be direct from employer to employee and all settlements can be tentatively agreed to between the parties—such agree-

ment, however, not to become valid unless it shall provide for the amounts of compensation specified in the law or until it is approved by the Industrial Commission. In no other vital respect is the compensation law changed—unless it be in the new provision making it possible for the employer safely to pay the employee first-aid money, prior to the settlement and award by the Commission,—but no one will find fault with this.

Otherwise, New York's compensation law still stands in its efficient and rigid entirety; it has the same high schedule of disability payments,—higher than those of any other State; "weekly wages" is still defined very favorably to the employee; the four presumptions which, in effect, place the burden of all usually controverted matters upon the employer, still remain; the decisions of the Commission as to matters of fact are still final; the State Fund is still subsidized by the State and continued as a virile competitor of the private insurers; the Commission is still vested with the broadest powers for stringent supervision. This is a plain statement of the facts. While the controversy concerning these bills was on, there were not many such.

THE CHANGES MISREPRESENTED

And, yet, these changes,—clearly in the interest of economy and efficiency of administration and the restoration of the old-time relation of employer and employee as well as easily understood by anyone who took the pains to read the bills,—were, during their progress through the legislature, persistently,—through ignorance, it is hoped,—misrepresented by news and editorial writers in both the daily and periodical press. It was said that such changes emasculated the New York workmen's compensation law; that they permitted,—nay, even required,—the employer and employee to make "private settlements,"—*i. e.*, settlements without proper governmental supervision; indeed, that, once the amendments were in operation, the "ambulance chasers" of the old employers' liability days would again come into their own, while both the employer and his usual insurer,—the casualty company,—were held up to public scorn, with the unsupported statement that both would profit by these changes. And, as if these were not enough, it was rashly asserted that sinister influences had been brought to bear upon the legislature, either by the employers or by the casualty companies, to the end that

this legislation have favorable consideration.

Now, what are the facts?

"The law emasculated." What has already been said indicates that this is not true.

"Private settlements." The bill did not provide for "private settlements," because under it no settlement was valid unless, as to amount and duration of payment, it was in accordance with the law and approved by the Commission. Similarly, the phrase "direct settlements" was misdescriptive. The correct phrase is "voluntary settlements,"—*i. e.*, settlements which can be made between the parties if they so choose, but which must conform to the law and have official approval before becoming enforceable.

"Ambulance chasers." This charge was brazen nonsense. What possible part can the ambulance chaser play in negotiations between employer and employee, where the terms of the agreement must be in accord with a hard-and-fast statute, and where the agreement, when made, must be approved by a governmental commission?

"Profit to employers and to casualty companies." So far as employers are concerned, the only profit to them under the new system of settlements would be through agreements for less compensation than, in given accidents, they now pay. This is impossible under the strict wording and severe penalties of New York's law. The same is true of the casualty companies. Their only gain would come from reducing their outgo through losses. This also is impossible under a law providing fixed benefits and requiring official approval of all settlements.

"Sinister influences." A sufficient answer to the charge of sinister influences is that the legislator who assumed responsibility for it later withdrew his statements. The charge thus rested upon a mere statement that was withdrawn; there was no proof offered by anyone. Nor, the writer believes, was there any to offer.

VALUE OF THE AMENDMENTS

So much for the misrepresentations which have been made regarding these amendatory bills.

Now, why were these bills advanced? The legislators who proposed them gave three reasons: First, that the bureaucratic system of settlements had resulted in exasperating delays in payments of compensation,—delays amounting almost to a public scandal; second, that the bureaucratic method had greatly increased the cost of administer-

ing the law; and, third, that such method unjustly set up an additional barrier between employer and employee in their relations with each other. These reasons were successfully traversed by no one,—indeed, they were in effect admitted. And the fight was made on appeals to class prejudice and assertions concerning the probable effect of the changes which lacked both candor and truth.

THEORY OF COMPENSATION LAWS

But these reasons advanced by the legislative proponents of the bill were by no means all. Others, and perhaps more potent,—at least to students of the subject,—were the following:

Correct theory. There are in the United States, broadly speaking, two kinds of compensation laws: One is based on the theory that compensation is a tax laid on industry and, therefore, to be collected and paid out by the State. The other starts with the premise that compensation is a hazard of industry against which the employer may,—in many States, must,—insure, and that the duty of the State ceases when it has established a proper supervision of insurance to guarantee payments and of settlements to prevent imposition. Expressive of the first theory are the monopolistic State fund laws of Ohio, Washington, Oregon, Nevada, West Virginia, and Wyoming. In each of these the State collects the premium (tax) and pays the loss (compensation). In each of the other twenty-five compensation States insurance of compensation is either permitted or compelled, and competition between from two to four methods of insurance allowed. The striking fact, however, is that, while New York belongs in theory in the latter group, it originally adopted the settlement and payment practise of the tax-theory group. Either it should have excluded commercial insurance,—as did Ohio and the five other "tax" States,—or else it should have recognized and properly supervised the familiar practise of commercial insurance. The amendment of 1915 thus accomplishes harmony in theory. In brief, it strikes from the New York law provisions which never should have been inserted in the commercial insurance compensation law adopted by New York in 1913.

But, it was argued, does not this settlement method come from the Dutch law, where commercial insurance is permitted? Yes; but, under the Dutch law, the government has made itself responsible,—by be-

coming in effect the guarantor of every insurer,—for every compensation payment, and the government, therefore, properly, itself collects and pays the compensation, no matter from whom due. The opposite is true in New York. The State expressly disclaims liability, and limits its function to supervision of the employers and insurers upon whom rest that liability and the management of an official mutual fund for the employers who prefer that method of insuring their compensation payments.

OTHER STATE LAWS

Inclusive of the seven acts already passed in 1915, we now have compensation laws in thirty-one of the forty-eight States. Six have been mentioned. That of Kentucky has been declared unconstitutional and is not in operation. In twenty-one of the remaining twenty-four,—*i. e.*, including New York as a non-settlement State,—provision was made for direct, *i. e.*, voluntary settlements; and, it may be added, either by implication or by positive provision, for direct payments. These States, together with the years in which their laws were enacted and the sections of such laws through which voluntary settlements are recognized, are the following:

Arizona (1912) §3173 of Rev. Stats.
 California (1913) §32.
 Colorado (1915) §70.
 Connecticut (1913) §22.
 Illinois (1912) §22.
 Indiana (1915) §57.
 Iowa (1913) §26.
 Kansas (1912) §23.
 Louisiana (1914) §§17, 19 and 31.
 Maine (1915) §30.
 Massachusetts (1911) §4, Part 3.
 Michigan (1912) §5, Part III.
 Minnesota (1913) §22.
 Nebraska (1913) §§36 and 37.
 New Hampshire (1911) §9.
 New Jersey (1911) §18.
 Oklahoma (1915) §10.
 Rhode Island (1912) §§1 and 2.
 Texas (1913) §5 of Part II.
 Vermont (1915) §31.
 Wisconsin (1913) §2394-15.

Maryland and Montana,—the only other States besides New York to prohibit, in effect, voluntary settlements,—merely copied New York's error.

Thus, New York, in 1915, has made its law not only harmonious in theory with the system which it adopted in 1913, but, in so doing, has brought its law into harmony in this particular with the laws of twenty-one sister States. More, it has

adopted,—though not in identical words,—the recommendation, dated last October, of the Commissioners on Uniform Laws representing all the States. Section twenty-nine of their "Uniform Workmen's Compensation Act" reads as follows:

Section 29. If the employer and the injured employee reach an agreement in regard to compensation under this act, a memorandum of the agreement shall be filed with the Board and, if approved by it, thereupon the memorandum shall for all purposes be enforceable under the provisions of section 38, unless modified as provided in section 36.

Such agreements shall be approved by the Board only when the terms conform to the provisions of this act.

Expert and Official Opinion. Though the literature on Workmen's Compensation in the United States is yet rather limited, and the discussions of this particular phase are rare, such matter as is available all points one way, namely, toward voluntary settlements, subject to governmental approval.

Witness the following:

Provision should be made for the settlement of compensation claims either by agreement, subject to the approval of the Accident Board, or, if no such agreement be reached, by arbitration . . .

(From the pamphlet on "Standards for Workmen's Compensation Laws," issued by the American Association for Labor Legislation, in September, 1914.)

In the States where there are industrial accident boards having power to pass upon settlement agreements, to make rules and regulations, to require the filing of receipts showing actual payments of compensation to the men, and having arbitrations and hearings before them in cases of dispute, there was found no danger from fraud or deception on the part either of the employer or the workman. In those States the law is being fairly administered and employees are receiving promptly their full compensation under the law.

(From the Report of the National Civic Federation's Committee on the Operation of Compensation Laws, issued in January, 1914.)

The only federal commission which has considered this subject,—the so-called Sutherland Commission, which reported to Congress in 1912,—both endorsed voluntary settlements and, in terse fashion, gave the reasons therefor, as follows:

The entire administration of the law by the government would be either vastly expensive or vastly ineffective, because, if charged with the responsibility of seeing that payments were made in all proper cases and withheld in all improper cases, it would be necessary to carefully examine all claims, which would result in enormous expense; or to settle claims without such examination, which would result in large sums of money

being paid out improvidently. This examination can best be made by each railroad company itself, and better results will follow by leaving the adjustment of the claims, in the first instance, to the employer and the employee, making provision, as this proposed law does, for safeguarding the interests of the injured employee by providing an official umpire at government expense, thus reducing the administrative functions of the government to the minimum.

EXPERIENCE

In spite of all this, the case for voluntary settlements would fall if it could be shown that, to any considerable extent, wrong has resulted, or is likely to result, from preliminary agreements, subject to official approval. The converse is the fact,—as witness the above excerpts. There may be isolated cases of injustice, even in States where official approval is necessary; but, as the California Commission says, in its 1915 Report,—California, the State of Governor Johnson and of one of the most advanced compensation laws,—“these constitute the exception and not the rule.” Indeed, all the reports published by the various States which permit voluntary settlements are silent as to any wrong really requiring remedy,—nay, they go the other way. The only review of conditions to the contrary is the recent survey of settlement practises in New Jersey. Such practises are bad, and were properly criticized; but they are due, not to voluntary settlements, per se, but to voluntary settlements substantially without supervision and without approval by a regulating commission. It will be time to abandon the natural method of reaching agreements as to compensation payments when mere fears become realities,—not before.

This, in the briefest possible compass, is the story of the recent noisy but ineffectual campaign against proper and needed advances in the movement for a sane labor and workmen's compensation system in New York. It has been written in justice to the many students of and sympathizers with the problems of labor, nay, also the many,—both in official life and in the business world, whether as employers or as managers of insurance companies,—who in New York stood by their guns and fought in these recent days. Many other estimable men,—not to say numerous agencies of publicity,—were misled by the noise and force and persuasion of the political and labor leaders who condemned these bills. Time and experience will, of course, demonstrate which side was right, but the weight of the evidence, it is confidently asserted, is,—and, as the years go

on, will increasingly be,—with the proponents,—not the opponents,—of the so-called Spring and the Sage-Macdonald bills. For, the truth lies not far from this, that: The virulent campaign here pictured was just an unreasoning composite of fear, passion, suspicion, ignorance, false-witnessing, and politics,—a very plague which, spite the poison and pain of its visitation, has now fortunately been survived.

MOTHERS ON THE PAY-ROLL IN MANY STATES

BY SHERMAN MONTROSE CRAIGER

INDEPENDENCE DAY in perhaps five thousand fatherless homes this year will have had a new significance for thrice as many orphaned boys and girls, who, with their mothers, can in some cases point to a grandparent that helped in Revolutionary times to overthrow a foreign king, and set the United States free. Pleasant as this more or less hazy historical picture may be for a few of them, it can scarcely be compared with the feelings of thankfulness of all for new eras of economic freedom opened up to them in New York and other States in the South and West.

These prospective blessings arise out of the new order of social welfare legislation commonly known, for want of a better name, as mothers' pensions. In simple terms, the latter are grants of money in lump sums out of the taxpayers' treasury, for distribution in monthly allowances through local governmental officials to families where the father has died prematurely at his task in the iron foundry, the carpenter shop, woollen mill, or wherever he toiled for wife and children, leaving them dependent upon her scanty earnings or the irregular and often haphazard aid of charity.

HOME VERSUS ASYLUM IN NEW YORK STATE

The great Empire State, a trifle tardily though none the less welcome, turned good angel on July first, and with open-handed generosity will search out and visit the needy homes from the Hudson River to the St. Lawrence, ministering to their wants. That plenty of work will be discovered goes without saying, for in the metropolis alone about 1500 widowed mothers and perhaps three times as many children await the ministrations of this new kind of justice. Upwards of thirty dollars a month, on the average, it is estimated, will find its way into these bare little homes, driving away worry and want,

and wiping out as if by magic the lines of care and the pinch of hunger from the faces of uncomplaining youngsters. There will be a little money for the rent, and something to pay for "real meat" at the butchers, "and lots of bread and potatoes," was the way one eager-eyed little mother put it, as she told the legislative committee last winter of her widowhood struggles.

No larger sum may be given to any mother, under the law, than would suffice to maintain her minor children in an asylum, where the State pays \$10 a month for the board of an orphaned boy or girl. More than 21,480 children on the average have been supported in the institutions of New York City, at a total outlay of \$2,827,658 a year. Even now a majority of these children must continue to be wards of the municipality for the reason that only about 10 per cent. of them have mothers living. This percentage of little ones had to be committed because of grim poverty, but from now on they may live happily at home. About \$500,000 will be disbursed annually in equal monthly allowances through local child-welfare boards to their mothers. This will not apply, however, in cases where the family has resided less than two years in the county, or if the husband was not a citizen at the time of his death.

In the less densely populated districts, the problem is not quite so acute, although it is estimated that there are about 10,500 dependent children in the remaining fifty-six counties of the State, for the care of whom \$2,175,000 more is spent yearly. Here again it is found that a large percentage has lost both parents, but at least 1000 of these boys and girls will leave the cheerless asylums for home and mother. They are not going to grow up as did their grandfathers, in some instances, with life all work and no play.

A case in point, that of Simon P. Quick,

of Broome County, was not without its effect on the legislators at Albany last winter, when they were considering the pension bill.

"I hope it will become a law," this white-haired old man said, "so that the children of to-day will not have to struggle as we did. I became the head of our family at the age of nine, when my father died. Mother and I went out to work, and she tried hard to keep the home together. There were some dark days, and it looked like my brothers and sisters might have to go to the orphanage, but mother won out. I know that we are all better men and women as a result of her care and love."

Other States, also, have fallen in line this year, so that along with New York there march Wyoming, Tennessee, and Arizona. In this way at least 2000 more families will start life afresh, by means of similar allowances. All told, laws for the pensioning of widowed mothers have been adopted by twenty-six States, and in ten others the question is pending.

CHILD POVERTY IN KANSAS CITY

When it is recalled that the movement is scarcely five years old, its sweep over the country is astonishing. In 1910 Judge E. E. Porterfield, of Kansas City, began to take notice of the frequency with which boys and even girls were brought into the juvenile court charged with petty crimes against property. His faith in childhood was too profound to lead him to adopt any hasty conclusions as to the whys and wherefores, so he undertook a quiet investigation. The result pointed directly to a cause hitherto unsuspected,—poverty, grim and sordid, and homes that were forbidding.

It did not take the Judge long to decide that he was aiding but little in the solution of juvenile court cases of delinquency when he punished a boy for filching bottles of milk and bundles of bread from a householder's doorstep, or corrected a girl for taking a bit of gay-colored ribbon from the store. The conditions cried out for a remedy for child poverty.

On his own initiative, he went before the Missouri Legislature and pleaded for help from the State. He demonstrated that in most cases the little culprits haled into the juvenile courts were fatherless, and that their widowed or deserted mothers, lacking skill or training as breadwinners while endeavoring to give their children the protection of a home, broke down in failure. Moreover, private philanthropic relief

through existing agencies was spasmodic and inadequate. It was clearly brought home to the legislators that only by State aid could young children be assured the personal care of a good mother in her own dwelling.

In June, 1911, Missouri adopted the first law for pensioning widowed mothers, but its application was limited to Jackson County alone, by a population limitation, with Kansas City as chief beneficiary. As a result of a study made by a municipal commission, St. Louis adopted an ordinance in July, 1912, by which a dependent child, if not in need of hospital treatment, could be boarded in his own home, the city paying \$3.50 a week for such cases, with an additional allowance of \$25 a year for clothing and medical treatment.

ALLOTMENTS TO WIDOWED MOTHERS

A good deal of credit is due to the common-sense methods with which James Gillham, the probation officer of the Juvenile Court of Jackson County, has administered the law, under the general direction of Judge Porterfield, and made its workings practicable. In the first place he simplified the proceedings so that there is very little red tape after the applicant fills out the blank, on which appears a brief history of the family and its resources.

"Do you own any real or personal property, or pay rent?" is the first thing asked. Then the amount of rent unpaid as well as other debts must be shown. There are the conventional questions about the nationality of the wife and husband, and if he carried life insurance. All the facts about the children must be given, including the salary earned by those at work.

REQUIREMENTS TO BE MET

Nothing is taken for granted, and if the applicant has a dollar left in the bank it must be told. The court wants to know, too, if any aid has been given by a charity or church, and whether the mother is trying to eke out a living by working away from home, and the wages received. The applicant must be sure and tell if she would be obliged to continue laboring regularly away from home, in case the court refuses a pension.

On the other hand she must decide in event the allowance is made if she will agree to stay at home with the children and properly rear them. And there must be a very plain showing of just what work the mother can procure and do at home, and the amount that can be earned from it. Finally, she

must ascertain the least amount that might be allowed by the court which would suffice for the children's needs.

Everything is very business-like, and open and above board. "The taxpayers' money cannot be wasted; efficiency and justice prevails, and if you are entitled to a pension you will receive it," is the impression the mother gets at the outset.

The probation officer checks up her references, reputation for honesty, and ability to care for her home and children. He is particular to find out if she goes to church, and whether she is likely to give the children a good education. "Is she, in your opinion, a good moral and religious woman?" is something that must be answered yes or no.

Even if her friends give her a good character, it must be backed up by concrete evidence which a court investigator personally obtains. He is careful to find out the housing conditions, how the neighbors behave, and whether there are saloons, etc., nearby. In that case the removal of the family may be recommended, contingent on the pension being granted. A very careful scrutiny is made of the children, their physical condition, also school and church attendance.

HOW THE SYSTEM WORKS

Widowed mothers who qualify in this way do not have to wait long before there is action, and in March of the present year \$1000 a month,—the full amount set aside by the County Court of Jackson County,—was allowed to needy families. While this is not quite as large a sum as some other cities are spending for pensions, Kansas City has reason to be proud of its record.

The average amount paid to each family last year was \$14.85 monthly, or at the rate of \$4.11 per child. The largest allowance was \$25, but here there were more than the usual number of children, which is about three to the family.

To those who fear a rush of applicants for pensions it may be worth while pointing out that up to the close of 1914, Judge Porterfield heard a total of 194 requests for aid, of which 78 were not deemed proper. Of the remainder, 94 were allowed, and 22 await additional appropriations by the county. Sixty-seven widowed mothers with 188 children under the age of fourteen were benefited, also 54 older children,—a total of 309.

A few allowances were discontinued. Eight widows remarried, while in the cases of five others the incomes of the mothers

grew to self-sufficiency. A happy augury of conscientious motherhood is suggested by the fact that in two cases only were the children improperly cared for. Conclusive evidence that the mothers would not impose on the community is to be had in the example of six widows who requested that their pensions be stopped because they were in a position to care for their children by obtaining work.

DOING AWAY WITH TRUANCY IN ILLINOIS

The benefits were so marked in Missouri that Judge Henry Neil prevailed on the Illinois Legislature to enact a similar statute, and Cook County set out to pension mothers. Naturally, a very much larger number of widows qualified, and in the thirty months from July 1, 1911, to December 31, 1913, over 3000 applications came before the court. After weeding out more than 2200 of them, 780 families were granted allowances. A few of these were of good, old-fashioned proportions, a couple of mothers reporting ten children each, average allowance \$3.25 apiece. Another family had nine boys and girls; four others eight; eleven had seven, and thirty-two mothers counted six mouths to feed. The smaller the family, the higher the allowance for each child,—fifty-eight families of two children each receiving \$8.58 per capita. Altogether 2654 children enjoyed the bounty of the State.

In January, 1915, when the law had reached the climax of a three-year trial, more than \$312,000 had been paid out in this way in Chicago, and about \$300,000 additional elsewhere in Illinois, according to Agent Joseph Meyer, of Cook County.

Joel D. Hunter, the Chief Probation Officer there, said that only eight children of the thousands reached through pensions had turned delinquent. "Truancy is almost eliminated," he added. "The mothers have done their part, as we insisted that they should not go out to work more than parts of three days a week, and they are staying at home and caring for their children. Doesn't that prove the law is a benefaction?"

PLUCKY NEW JERSEY MOTHERS

The success of the movement in the West has not been without its effect on the more conservative commonwealths along the Atlantic seaboard, and New Jersey vies with Massachusetts in looking after its dependent widowed mothers. While the law in the former State went into effect on Independence Day, 1913, a month or more elapsed before Somerset County was ready. On the

15th of August there walked into the court-house at Somerville the first applicant for a public hearing.

She evidently was unused to such surroundings, and sat down, a little breathless and frightened, beside her white-haired father and boy of eight or nine years. She wore a well-fitting skirt and white shirt-waist, with a becoming hat. All her answers to the judge's questions were made quietly and in a straightforward manner.

"I have lived in Somerset County for nine years," she said, "and have three children,—eight, thirteen, and fifteen years old, respectively. I earn \$6 a week by sewing. Our house rent is \$14.50 a month, and the church has helped me out with \$8 a month. By careful saving I have put a little money in the bank for a rainy day, and the children have saved \$25 and started their own savings accounts."

It did not take the court long to decide that this brave but frail little American should be helped, and \$18 a month was granted her out of the pension fund, the church aid, of course, to stop.

Over in Mercer County, Judge Gnichtel heard the application of Mrs. Verona Foss, at the court house in Trenton, about the same time. Mrs. Foss was a study, with her snub nose and wealth of hair, and determined mouth and chin. Her frank blue eyes sparkled as she told of her struggles for a couple of years to keep the home together and support five little ones. She opposed the plan advanced by the associated charity to have some of the children sent to an asylum.

"No, Judge; no child o' mine goes to any institution while I've skin left on my bones to work for 'em," she declared. "I earn \$4 a week, sir, sometimes as much as \$7, according to the times in the mills. They're splendid people," she went on, referring to her employers.

"I know my place looks untidy some days, but, Judge, what can you expect?" Mrs. Foss referred to a criticism made of her four-roomed home. "You see, I work in the mills six days a week, and goodness knows I'm ready for bed at night. Elsie,—she's twelve,—and Florence, eleven years old, keep house and try to have the little ones, Hilda, Walter, and Leon, neat and clean. The two eldest go to school every other day, and while one's away the other's housekeeper. But, Judge, the children are washed and dressed clean and sent to Sunday-school regularly."

Judge Gnichtel, in allowing \$30 a month

to Mrs. Foss, said that he had not awarded charity to the family! nothing of the sort. "The State owes them a debt," he added, "and it is my privilege to see that this is paid according to the law. And I am no Socialist, either!"

Some districts of New Jersey apparently have very few dependent widows. Only four applied in Ocean County the past year; Essex pensioned 427,—not an excessive number when it is recalled that its chief city (Newark) has over a third of a million people. The total for the State to the end of last October was 1910 mothers and children, and the cost was \$86,822.18.

FROM NEW ENGLAND TO THE PACIFIC COAST

A very much larger sum was expended by Massachusetts in the past year, the State appropriating \$175,000 for aid to mothers, and the various cities and counties about \$300,000 additional. Nearly 12,000 widows and children have been benefited. The age limit of the child is fourteen, and the average weekly payment \$6. It is interesting to note that supplies used up nearly 18 per cent. of the funds, while about 6 per cent. of the latter were paid out in cash to the mothers.

New Hampshire is another New England State to fall into line, and grants \$10 a month in cases where the widow has one child under sixteen years, and \$5 for each of the other minors.

A little more is allowed under the Ohio law, which provides \$15 a month for one child under the legal employment age, and \$7 a month for the others. Cincinnati led off with an appropriation of \$63,000.

Slightly less is authorized by the Iowa law, \$8 a month being the largest grant, in cases where the child is under fourteen. Michigan and Minnesota do a little better, the maximum allowance in the former ranging from \$12 to \$24 a month. Pennsylvania spends \$200,000 a year.

The Oklahoma act provides for a "school scholarship," payable in amounts corresponding to the earnings of children when the mother is dependent on them. There is a higher age limit in Nevada, and a boy or girl under eighteen may have \$10 a month when living with a dependent mother. In Oregon \$10 a month is allowed for dependent children under sixteen. There is a similar provision in Utah. South Dakota pays the same as Ohio; Idaho a little less. There are good laws in Wisconsin, Colorado, California, and Washington.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

TOPICS IN THE ENGLISH REVIEWS

THE tables of contents of the *Contemporary Review*, the *Fortnightly*, the *Nineteenth Century*, the *National*, and the *English*, as well as the still heavier quarterlies, all bear witness to the generally accepted belief that the relatively small section of the British public which reads these publications is more interested in war topics than in anything else. We are quoting elsewhere from the *Contemporary's* article on the liquor problem, and from the article on recruiting in the May *Fortnightly*.

The editor of the *National Review*, Mr. L. J. Maxse, who represents the extreme Imperialistic wing of British public opinion, revenges himself on those opponents, who, for years, have decried his alarmist utterances as the ravings of a crank, by reprinting extracts from the *National Review* on the subject of the German peril covering the fifteen years, 1899-1914. Many of the articles here quoted, some of them dating back for more than a decade, give weird foreshadowings of what has taken place in Europe since August 1. There are 354 pages of these gleanings, which are published under the title of "Germany on the Brain."

In the *Nineteenth Century* for June there is a defense of Italy's action in going to war based on Signor Salandra's speech of May 20, and the testimony of the Green Book. An article in the same review by Mr. Robert Machray takes the ground that Russia's chief motive in the invasion of East Prussia was to prevent Germany from sending aid to Austria. This aim, he contends, was largely fulfilled. There are two articles in this number on German atrocities and a comparison by Mr. Steel-Maitland of the economic effects of the war on England and Germany.

A writer in the *Contemporary* for June likens certain opposition journalists in England at the present moment to the American "Copperheads" in the Civil War. The same writer leads us to suppose that the British reading public is becoming somewhat tired of the irresponsible war talk indulged in by nov-

elists and other literary men. "Let our novelists write novels and entertaining novels," he says, "which shall refresh the thoughts of the anxious or the weary and divert the sick in hospitals. That is their job and we should keep them to it." In his article on "Italy and the Second Phase of the War," Dr. E. J. Dillon gives a detailed account of the negotiations between Signor Giolitti and Prince Bülow. Dr. Dillon maintains that Italy's strategic weakness on her land and sea frontiers is likely to be more than counterbalanced by her contribution to the military and naval forces of the Allies. Col. F. N. Maude defends the policy of attempting to force the Dardanelles without the coöperation of land troops.

In the *Fortnightly* for June Mr. Archibald Hurd characterizes the formation of the new British armies as "the miracle of the war." He censures the military administration, however, for permitting the haphazard enlistment of workers who are needed to produce munitions and armaments.

Blackwood's gives a graphic account of an episode in the retreat from Mons, describing the remarkable march of a detachment of British troops across the German lines of communication.

The *English Review* for June has a ten-page "Ballad of the War," by Lord Latymer. It also contains the second installment of extracts from a journal by May Sinclair; "At Neuve Chapelle," by "A Sub.," "How I Discovered the Date of the World War," by Major Stuart-Stephens; "Weapons and Tactics," by Lisle March Phillipps; "Labor and the War," by H. M. Tomlinson; "America at the Cross-Roads," by Sydney Brooks; "National Service and Government," by Austin Harrison.

In the *Englishwoman* for June there is a suggestive article on "The Employment of Women in Forestry." The writer points out that much of the labor in forest nurseries now performed by men and boys could be equally well done by women and girls with at least as good results.

THE DRINK PROBLEM IN ENGLAND

WRITING on "The Drink Trade and State Purchase," in the *Contemporary Review* for June, the Right Hon. Sir Thomas P. Whittaker, Member of Parliament and for many years a worker in the temperance movement, discusses the dangerous question and the proposed solution of it candidly and with grasp and insight. First of all, Sir Thomas finds that the lesson to be learned from the present "pitiable and humiliating spectacle" is "that the problem of dealing with the great evil which is our national discredit, would be enormously simplified if we were to eliminate from it the widespread influence,—political and social; national and local,—which personal financial interest in the trade creates and exercises against every effort to secure substantial reform." Pointing out that prohibition, "the simplest and most effective remedy where it can be enacted and enforced," is not now feasible in England because Parliament has not given the people the power locally to veto the sale of drink, he says:

Clearly it would be an enormous gain if the direct personal financial interest of the liquor trader were eliminated, and all pushing of the sale of drink and all inducements to the seller to evade the law were abolished. That can only be done by taking the trade out of the hands of those who now conduct it and placing it under the control of persons whose only object would be to promote the public well-being, and who would have no interest in pushing the sale or conniving at breaches of the law: that is to say, by placing it under disinterested management.

Taking up the practical aspects of the Lloyd George proposal, which as yet has failed of approval, the writer continues:

Of course, everything would turn upon the terms on which the transaction could be carried through. It would be useless to put before Parliament and the country anything that appeared to be extortionate or unreasonable. . . . The committee to which the problem for England and Wales was referred was a very representative one, and it made a unanimous report, the outstanding points of which have been made known, and were:

1. That the average prices for the three years ending June 30th, 1914, should be taken as the value of those securities which were quoted on London or provincial stock exchanges; that where the securities were not quoted, or the undertakings were privately owned, the number of years' purchase of the average annual net profits at which the value should be fixed should be based upon the number of years' purchase of the annual net profits which the prices of quoted securities represent. . . .

2. That the purchase price should be paid in 4 per cent. government stock at par, redeemable

at par at the option of the government any time after seven years.

When considering the financial aspects of such a transaction as this there are many important matters to be borne in mind. Not the least of them is the revenue now derived from license duties and the taxes on beer, spirits, wine, etc. A payment corresponding to what these would have amounted to, according to the quantity of drink sold, if the trade had remained in private hands, would, of course, have to be made to the revenue out of the receipts from sales.

The price to be paid for the whole of the liquor trade to be acquired in England and Wales on the basis suggested would probably have been something between £250,000,000 and £300,000,000. The average annual net profits made by the trade in those companies which have a stock exchange quotation for their securities are about 7 per cent. on the capital value represented by these quotations. It may therefore be assumed that the purchase of the whole of the trade, on the average, would have been on a 7 per cent. basis. As the payment would have been made in 4 per cent. government stock, there would have been a margin of 3 per cent. to work upon. This would have amounted to something like £7,500,000 to £9,000,000 a year, according to the capital value as ascertained. . . .

It will be said that Government management will never be so efficient and profitable as private enterprise. That is true; and if the object were to do as much business as possible the objection would be a sound one, but as that is not the case the objection loses much of its force, although it does represent a set-off which must not be overlooked.

Some of the advantages to be gained are summarized as follows:

1. The direct personal financial interest of individuals deriving an income from the trade would be enormously reduced and largely changed.
2. The local and national, political and social influence, which is now so great a barrier to effective legislation and to the efficient administration of the laws which have been enacted, would practically disappear.
3. The number of licensed premises would be enormously reduced.
4. Grocers' licenses would probably speedily disappear.
5. Shortening the hours of sale, closing on Sundays, earlier closing on Saturday nights, the abolition of back doors and side entrances, the stopping of credit and of hawking drink in casks and bottles, and many other reforms would be made practicable and easy.
6. Inducements to attempt unduly to influence and corrupt the police and pack our benches of magistrates would cease to exist.
7. There would be an end of such contentious questions as compensation and a time limit.
8. The way would not only be clear for giving the people in their respective localities a wide power of local option, including local veto, but the ability to use the power would be largely increased because the opposition to it would be much reduced and be far less active and vigorous.

GERMAN OPINION ON THE CASE OF THE "LUSITANIA"

AN editorial in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* of May 21 discusses the points of President Wilson's first note to Germany demanding the cessation of submarine warfare endangering the lives of passengers and crews of undefended merchant ships.

Referring to the fact that a number of days elapsed after the receipt of the note at Berlin before the German Government made a reply, this article accepts the delay as proof that the matter was carefully weighed before an official answer was given, and that the policy once announced by Germany would be maintained with firmness.

The article suggests that the American note, on the other hand, had perhaps not been prepared with equally careful deliberation. "It is visibly written under the influence of the excitement that was evoked in the United States through the death of the many American citizens that went down with the *Lusitania*, including some of the wealthiest men of America. This reflection of the popular resentment may work for the popularity of the note in America itself. If some of the expressions in it may seem very drastic to us in view of the intended diplomatic results, there is nevertheless in Germany an understanding of the condition of a government that must reckon with the sentiments of great, strongly incited, and little enlightened masses."

The article takes issue with the President's note chiefly on the point of the character of the *Lusitania* and her cargo. The main argument under this head is embodied in the following paragraphs:

The *Lusitania* was an English auxiliary cruiser, drew as such very large money subsidies from the English Government, was built under the supervision of the English Admiralty, and appeared quite regularly in the English Navy lists with a heavy armament. Now, whether or not the ship on its last voyage carried the armament that had been provided for it, is a matter of utter indifference in the pending dispute.

In the first place, the German Government cannot possibly know whether English warships just happen to have their cannon with them; in the second place, the *Lusitania*, upon completion of its voyage, would again have been equipped with arms in England and then used as a warship against Germany. A soldier who has lost his gun might just as well pose as a harmless noncombatant.

But, even taking it for granted that the United States should not admit this view of the case, which, to be sure, places a heavy neglect of duty



A GERMAN VIEW OF BRITISH MERCHANTMEN
From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)

upon them, the English Government, and the Cunard Line, there remains nevertheless the fact, officially communicated through the English Embassy at Bern, that the *Lusitania* carried in her hold munitions of war, and that, too, in enormous quantities. The rapid sinking of the ship was caused precisely by the explosion of these combustibles, since only a single German torpedo was fired.

If the reasoning of the note on the propriety and humanity of torpedoing merchant ships were to be followed, says this writer, "Germany would have to allow every English ship, filled to the rail with bombs for the mass destruction of our German soldiers, to sail into every English port, so long as any 'neutral' American finds it to his liking to travel to Europe upon it."

The editorial declares that in view of the warnings given by the German Embassy in Washington the United States Government should itself have prevented the departure of the *Lusitania*. "In order to save its own citizens, it should have held back the ship in any event, no matter how much it was otherwise of the opinion that the principles of the German methods of warfare on the sea were contrary to law."

In its concluding paragraph the editorial offers some hope for an understanding between the two powers. "In spite of all that

has been done to us from over there and is still being done, we do not desire a serious sharpening of this conflict. But the supreme consideration for us now remains the energetic and purposeful waging of the war, and all other considerations recede into the background behind this."

In connection with its comment on the first American note the *Hamburger Nachrichten* makes the following plea in defense of German submarine warfare:

The German submarine is only one fruit, the latest, of the science of shipbuilding and the use of explosives. When gunpowder was invented the entire system of warfare and of safety had to undergo change. At that time, in the beginning of this development, many persons remonstrated against the use of such changed means of warfare, and Ludovico Ariosto speaks in glowing verses his curse against the gun as an implement of warfare. The human spirit of invention did not suffer itself to be arrested, and humanity reconciled itself to the innovations and the changed conduct.

One result of the invention of gunpowder was the construction of steel ships with their mighty guns, and a still further development was the German submarines, with their wide radius of activity. Humanity must accustom itself to the one as well as to the other, even as, in fact, it has accustomed itself to the battle with explosives, even to airships and aeroplanes that throw bombs. Yes, finally even to the French stink-bombs. Only when the German troops brought still more effective asphyxiating gases to bear upon the French did the clamor of woe begin to resound. We cannot assume that the Government at Washington, in the friendship which it emphasizes in its note, wishes to appropriate to itself the pharisaical French indignation simply because it is a matter of German means of warfare.

The submarines are warships as well as any others, only they are new and bring with them new concomitant phenomena. Whereas cruisers that sail on the sea give warning by their mere appearance, other means of warning are furnished for the submarines. We have applied them.

The general tenor of German press comment on President Wilson's first note is indicated by the following paragraph from the *Vossische-Zeitung*:

If America succeeds in bringing it about that British merchant vessels shall no longer sail under false flags, that England shall cease arming merchant vessels, and that contraband cargoes shall no longer be protected by American passengers, then the United States will find Germany on her side in an endeavor to lead submarine war into more humane channels.

If America fails to influence Great Britain thus, the United States will have to put up with submarine war as at present waged. She must take care that her citizens enter as little into the naval war zone as they would into the firing line near Arras, Lille, or Przemyśl.

In the *Deutsche Tages Zeitung* Count Reventlow, writing on the possibilities of war between America and Germany, said:

Trade between Germany and America has shrunk to microscopic dimensions. What they receive from us is more valuable and necessary than what we receive from them. The complete cutting off of negotiations would leave us where we are. America would only be able to damage us by confiscating the ships left in her harbors and much other German property. Further dangerous deeds of war from America are not to be feared because they are not possible. Also we do not forget certain interior difficulties in America. That is another side of the business. On the other hand, any stopping of the submarine war, if only for the time, would have most important results. Any orders to submarine commanders to conform to any formal conditions laid down by international law would mean hindering their actions and making the submarine war an empty farce, a kind of screen behind which one would have obediently to withdraw with apologies.

The German undersea war is no improvisation or sudden caprice, but a well-considered measure on a great scale. On a great scale, therefore, must be the practical carrying out of the measure if it is to be an apparatus of great value. When the German Empire, in this great struggle for existence, decides to take such steps, then there is no drawing back.

After the receipt at Berlin of the second note from President Wilson there was a marked change in the tone of German newspaper comment on the issue between the two countries. Thus the general director of the *Lokal Anzeiger*, Eugen Zimmermann, said in his journal on June 13:

President Wilson desires nothing more and nothing less than an understanding between Germany and England concerning the forms of maritime warfare, which at the same time will insure the safety of American passengers. The task is not light, considering the development of naval war, but it can be solved if all interests display goodwill.

Herr Zimmermann proposed, as a new basis of naval operations, that passengers on ships with special marks of identification and sailing under the government guarantee that they are unarmed should receive proper consideration at the hands of submarine commanders. Such a compromise, however, would also involve the withdrawal of the British Admiralty's instruction to merchantmen to attack and ram submarines on sight.

The *Tageblatt*, edited by Theodor Wolff, advocates the creation of an advisory council to the German Foreign Office in which former Ministers and Secretaries of Foreign Affairs, Ambassadors, and leading members of the Reichstag shall have seats. This, he thinks, would be a suitable method for

giving German diplomacy adequate authority and prestige at home, and would result in the avoidance of new conflicts.

Referring to President Wilson's demand that the Allies and non-combatants shall not be endangered by submarine warfare, the *Kreuzzeitung* says that the mild form of the President's note cannot conceal the gravity of the situation and that it reveals that President Wilson has not the slightest comprehension of the German standpoint nor the situation which has compelled Germany to act as she has done:

Americans who want to visit England can do so without appreciable danger on American ships that have pledged themselves to carry no contraband, a pledge that can easily be verified by German consular officials.

Under the present circumstances, however, as long as travelers use ships which carry contraband and possibly are armed and, in conformity with the orders of the British Admiralty, attempt to ram submarines, this demand of the note it is impossible to fulfil. If we are to give in to the demands of the note, Great Britain first would have to make serious changes in its previous practices and guarantee the changes satisfactorily. President Wilson must busy himself about this next. He must be able to comprehend that we are not going to let submarine warfare out of our hand as a weapon in order that American travelers may cross without danger to Europe on

British ships, perhaps with the intention of insuring the freighting of ammunition and other war materials for our enemies.

The *Frankfurter Nachrichten* proposes, as a method for modifying the hardships of submarine warfare, that the United States Government consent to the stationing of German commissioners in American ports to examine ships sailing for Europe, so that those which carry no armaments, munitions, or troops may be exempt from attack by German submarines.

As a precedent for such action the *Nachrichten* cites the fact that similar commissioners are maintained by the British Government in various neutral countries to examine and certify with regard to cargoes bound to neutral ports.

Writing in the *Vossische Zeitung*, George Bernhard says that not one of the essential differences between Germany and the United States has been removed by the exchange of notes:

America told us she would take the initiative in preventing England from a future misuse of naval warfare. This we greeted thankfully. If America's representations are unsuccessful, she may repeat them. Whether the German submarine warfare can be moderated depends solely on the attitude of England.

TRUE GERMAN-AMERICANISM

IN repelling the charge of unfairness preferred by Professor Edouard Meyer, of Berlin, against Harvard University, Professor Kuno Francke, Curator of the Germanic Museum of Harvard, who is both a native German and an American citizen, has set forth, in a remarkable pamphlet, his opinion as to the problem of the German-American and especially of the German scholar working at an American university in the present world situation. This pamphlet was printed in German, but an English translation appears in the *New York Times* for June 6.

At the outset, Professor Francke makes this candid admission regarding the dominant sentiment of the American public at this time:

Surely we may not deny the fact that the public opinion of America in its overwhelming majority has been on the side of England and its allies from the beginning of the war till to-day. Whatever may be the reasons for this regrettable fact,—the English foundations of all public institutions in America, the common language, the far-reaching influence of the English press, the dominating world power of English trade,—we cannot change this fact in a moment; we must reconcile ourselves

to it. Perhaps there is gathering prospectively a gradual reaction toward the other direction. To coöperate in that is the task of every German-American. The question is simply: Which is the most effective and judicious way of actually bringing about this change?

In Professor Francke's opinion the most ineffective and injudicious way would be the one recommended by the "German-American National Alliance," which Professor Francke describes as "the attempt to transplant the national differences of the European war upon the internal politics of the United States."

This is his reason for considering the proposal of the German-American National Alliance a blunder:

If the American political system has one advantage over those of most European states, it is this, that it has till now kept free from separatist tendencies based on the championing of particular nationalities. There is in the United States no Polish, no Irish, no Czechish question; and every attempt to create such an issue based on nationalities would be repudiated by the overwhelming majority of the American people as a crime against the fundamental principles of the political life of the New World. A party that would put

itself in the service of such a separatist race-politics would be proscribed by all the other parties as un-American and a danger to the state, and would have no chance whatsoever of coöperating in any positive way in the great public problems.

Professor Francke states clearly and fully the grounds upon which he objects to this proposal. Looking at the matter from the German as well as the American viewpoint, he says:

It was necessary to declare publicly that an embargo on arms exports on the part of America would be a step directed indubitably against England, which carried with it the possibilities of a conflict with England. I do not consider it beyond the realm of possibility; indeed, I hope that if England continues to exploit its rule of the sea so ruthlessly and to disregard so constantly the rights of the United States as a neutral as in the last few months, such a radical change in the sentiment toward England will take place that the public opinion of America will demand an embargo on the export of arms. It will then demand it as a defensive measure to compel England to respect the American trade interest, and interests, as a neutral. But to demand it through the "German-American National Alliance" as an act of humanity and justice toward Germany,—that can merely evoke from American quarters the remark that German arms manufacturers in the last decades,—in the Russo-Japanese war, the Balkan confusion, and elsewhere,—have taken a leading and conspicuous part in supplying warring nations with ammunition and war material of every sort without this having been considered in Germany a violation of the dictates of humanity and justice. As is known, the German Government has made no such demand, but confines itself to pointing out the good right of the United States to protect its own trade interests against England through such an act.

Going a step farther, Professor Francke maintains that the Germans of America are, in the first place, Americans, and that "if they are set face to face with this bitter choice they are ready to let even their sympathies

for the gigantic struggle of the German people for its existence fall into the background before their duty to omit everything that might engulf their new Fatherland, without compelling necessity, in the European chaos."

Another motive that animated Professor Francke was this:

Not only by pointing out actually and free from exaggeration what Germany has contributed to human progress, but also and above all in quiet coöperation in the upbuilding of American life lies the winning strength of the German element in this country. For this coöperation includes all that which is the best in the German spirit.

Professor Francke looks forward to a time when Americans of all parties and every racial descent will unite in the wish for the establishment of a peace that will assure for Germany the maintenance of its soil and the guaranteeing of the freedom of the seas. When such a peace is achieved "it will, above all, be the task of science to tie anew the bonds between America and Germany."

An intellectual isolation can certainly not be to the interest of Germany. Even if Professor Meyer's view, that Frenchmen, Englishmen, Belgians, and Japanese are at the moment more welcome at Harvard than Germans were correct (as it is not), then Germany should strive all the more to have also German representatives of science participating in the work of giving a visible expression to the unity of modern civilization. Our task will be not only to heal physical wounds, and to restore devastated lands, but above all to build up again the empire of the spirit, which includes all races and all lands. And where could this rebuilding be undertaken more auspiciously than here in America? But we Germans may not keep aloof from this rebuilding; if for no other reason than for the sake of the children of German-American parents, who must not grow up with the thought that Germany is a self-exiled stranger among the races and has no community with the ideals of the rest of the world.

PATRIOTISM VS. COSMOPOLITANISM

PROFESSOR AGATHON AALL, of the University of Christiania, discusses in the Norwegian review, *Samtiden*, the contrast and conflict between the two ideals which have their respective centers of gravity in national self-sufficiency and a sense of universal humanity. The basis of his article is the fact that, so far, whenever those two ideals have been placed in hostile opposition to each other, cosmopolitanism has been rudely brushed aside. In this connection he points out that whenever militant patriotism asserts itself as it does in time of war, the commandments of ordinary,

individual morality are ruthlessly violated.

It is wrong to lie,—of course. But treachery and falsehood are laudable things when the interests of one's own country demand them. It is wrong to be selfish. But there is nothing except praise to be heard on behalf of the selfishness that serves one's country. It is a sin for one human being to kill another. But the morality of war commands: Thou shalt kill.

These facts lead the writer to wonder whether there may be something wrong at the very root of patriotism; whether, in a word, it might be necessary to seek its total abolishment. Analyzing it historically, he

shows how our present ideas run back to the days of Hellas and Rome, and he suggests that the trouble may not lie in patriotism as such, but in our failure to develop our patriotic ideas and ideals in keeping with the evolutionary changes noticeable in everything else.

The patriotism of Hellas was that of a small group of people, feeling themselves set apart from all the rest of the world. It was, on the whole, the narrow ideal of a narrow sphere of life. The patriotism of Rome began in the same fashion, its separatistic character being even more strongly marked. But with the growth of Roman empire followed the growth of Roman ideas and ideals, and it was Rome that gave to the world that Roman law, which was based on the conception of certain ideas of right and justice as common to all human beings.

Since that time, changed conditions have revolutionized the entire life of man. To a Greek it was plain that all civilization must have its roots within Hellas. But try to analyze the cultural core of a modern Scandinavian, for instance, and see what you get: a conglomeration of spiritual factors springing from all the four quarters of the compass. There are Protestant consciousness tied to the name of Luther; yearnings for political freedom connecting themselves historically with the great French Revolution; artistic ideals stamped by Michael Angelo or Beethoven; an alternately ascetic and esthetic life-view having its models in Goethe, Kant, Rousseau, Ibsen; a scientific and historical outlook on life founded by Darwin, Spencer, Helmholtz; a conception of the soul worked out by Wundt; and so on.

The old barriers between distinct groups of human beings are being broken down, while new ties and connections are incessantly being built. Among the factors entering most conspicuously into this work of unification, the writer mentions modern systems of communication, modern science, modern art, the international trades-union movement, and the gradual leveling of manners, customs, and conditions of life. And finally he points out that the idea of patriotism comprises two different elements: that of local selfishness, and that of sentimental attachment to the region with which our earliest impressions and experiences are connected. A process of evolution has already been started, he thinks, by which the former element is being gradually eliminated from our conception of patriotism, while the latter element remains and must always remain.

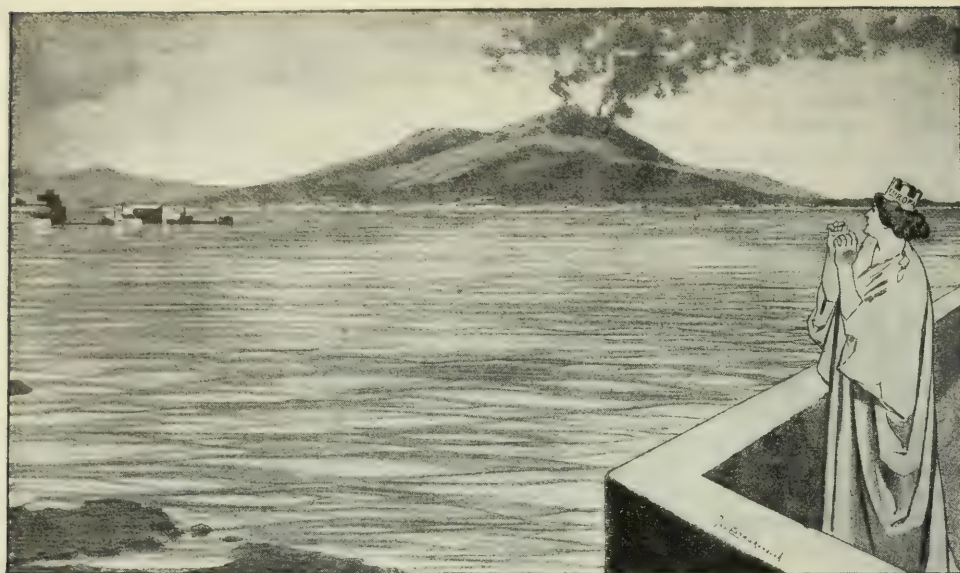
In proof of his belief that humanity will soon be ready for a new form of patriotism, one that implies no hostility to other human groups, he mentions a number of movements

and institutions to be found all over the world, some of them having come into being since the beginning of the present war: the Union of Democratic Control in England, which has for its object to insure a just settlement when the time for peace has come; the Union of the New Fatherland in Germany, which aims to oppose all thoughts of land-grabbing; the international peace organ, *The Truth*, started in Switzerland; the League of Neutral Countries, which has its headquarters at Lugano and aims at working for universal disarmament; the Women's Peace Conference recently held at the Hague, and the Anti-War Council formed in Holland.

Finally he turns to his own country with the question what it can do to promote and hasten this change of ideals, whereby a new, non-militant patriotism is to be established,—a patriotism that does not have to conflict with the growing sense of cosmopolitanism. He points to the Norwegian Nobel Foundation, appointed by the Storting for the purpose of awarding the Nobel peace prize, and he suggests that the time may have arrived when it would be better for the foundation to adopt a more constructive method of working.

Under the terms laid down by the founder, it is not necessary to distribute the prize every year. In fact, it may be permitted to accumulate for as much as five years at a stretch. The will of Alfred Nobel contains also the express provision that the work on behalf of universal peace may be carried out in any way the foundation may deem fit, and more particularly by means of scientific research and popular education. With this in mind, the writer proposes that a fund of sufficient size be raised by the withholding of the peace prize for several years,—the prize amounting to about \$40,000 a year,—and that the accruing fund be used along the lines suggested by the founder himself. For this purpose, it would be possible to add foreign members to the Nobel Institute, which has already been established at Christiania, and thus to build up a vast international organization, by which public opinion in every civilized country might be powerfully influenced.

"The test of a feeling is furnished by the deeds springing from it," says Professor Aall in conclusion. "Patriotism must face that test, too. Patriotism should prompt a people to seek an honorable solution of the problems particularly its own. And Norway has, once for all, turned its attention toward the problem of universal peace."



EUROPE BEHOLDS ANOTHER ITALIAN ERUPTION
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

ITALY'S TERRITORIAL DEMANDS

AN article by Signor A. Quintieri in *Rivista d'Italia* (Rome), written on the eve of Italy's momentous decision to range herself on the side of the Triple Entente powers, gives evidence of an exceptionally clear perception of the difficulties to be encountered, even in case of a successful issue of the war.

The writer recognizes that the oppressive character of Austrian rule, in certain directions, has had at least one good effect in the regions inhabited by those of Italian blood, for this very oppression has kept alive their devotion to Italy, while under the generous French domination of the island of Corsica, ethnographically and geographically within the Italian sphere, and where the Italian language is still largely maintained, the inhabitants have become entirely French in sentiment. At the same time Signor Quintieri is not disposed to charge the Austrian Government with having done much economic injury to "Unredeemed Italy." Of this he says:

The Italian regions subject to Austria do not enjoy any greater degree of prosperity than they did long ago under Venetian rule, but bearing in mind the changes that have taken place all along the Adriatic, we cannot say that they are notably worse off. If the ethnic frontier has been gradually pushed back toward the sea, this change has not resulted from the political action of Austria, but is due to the more progressive character of

the Italian population, which has abandoned to the less enterprising Slavs the rudimentary agricultural development of the interior, and has moved down toward the coast so as to carry on commerce and thus enjoy a greater degree of prosperity, in the same way and for the same reasons that the Greeks of Macedonia have given up the interior of that country to the Bulgarians.

If the commercial activity that built up Italy has declined, as is but too true, this is not because it has been cut off by the Austrian ports in the Adriatic. It has decreased for the same reason that has made the port of Venice, two centuries ago supreme in this region, now scarcely able to resist the competition of Trieste, and Venetian commerce, that once monopolized the trade of the Levant, has now to depend upon the subsidies doled out by the Italian Government.

This commercial activity of Trieste, which competes so victoriously with our mercantile marine, has its roots in the Austrian hinterland. The trade which proceeds from the Hungarian plains finds an outlet in Trieste, directed largely by government control and by favorable customs and port regulations. This trade would not be transferred to us by the annexation of Trieste, for the activity of all the ports on the Dalmatian coast is directly dependent upon the economic policy of the state governing the sources of supply, and these sources would be provided with some other outlet provided for by political exigencies.

Turning to the territorial extension required by Italy, Signor Quintieri defines this within somewhat narrower limits than those likely to be established by the Italian Government should it eventually find itself in a position to dictate terms to Austria,—al-

ways subject, indeed, to a possible veto on the part of Russia. These minimum requirements are thus presented:

We confine ourselves to what is incontestably our right, putting aside a century-old tradition which renders especially dear to us certain parts of the Dalmatian territory; but we demand a reasonable compensation in view of the size of our population, and also on account of the great and important centers of commerce and industry on our side of the Adriatic, while the Dalmatian coast only offers a few scattered towns and half-deserted islands, and, moreover, because of the fact that we are exposed toward the East so long as our domain has not reached its proper geographical frontiers. It is not easy to find an adequate compensation for these disadvantages, but looking exclusively to the safety of the Adriatic, we can confine ourselves to asking for the Strait of Otranto and the adjacent territory requisite for

its defense on the other side of the sea. We ask this of Austria, just as we would of any other state which might succeed to it in its Adriatic possessions.

The Strait of Otranto for us, in a more limited sphere, is what the Strait of Gibraltar is for the English; it will be the bulwark of our eastern ports, the supporting base of our squadrons in case of war. Serbia has nothing to fear from us. From the time that Italy became a nation she has never interfered with the aspirations of her neighbors, and that right of nationality we have proclaimed for ourselves we have respected for others.

The assurances we shall give to the Slavs are more significant than those which, according to official journals, have been offered to us from Petrograd, because they are confirmed by the conduct we have observed whenever we have had an opportunity to support the demands or give our vote in favor of oppressed peoples.

ITALY'S TROUBLES IN TRIPOLI

WRITING before Italy's declaration of war against Austria, the political editor of *Rassegna Nazionale* (Rome), while deprecating the intemperate zeal of many who advocated Italy's interference in the great conflict, takes occasion to formulate very emphatically the legitimate expectations of that country as to territorial expansion. Treating of this he says:

Now that the question of Italy's neutrality has reached a critical stage, we must hope that the government, before making its final decision will have taken every step to ensure the realization of our national aspirations to the fullest possible extent. Whether by peaceful or by war-like means, there can be no doubt that the destiny of our unredeemed territory on the Adriatic must be definitely determined.

We trust, however, that other problems also will be solved in accordance with our special interests. Thus we trust that there will be reserved for us, in the Mediterranean, in the Egean, and in Asia Minor, a share proportionate to the requirements of our position; we trust, moreover, that the significant campaign of a not unimportant section of the Russian press against our aspirations in the Adriatic and the Balkans, does not truly represent the ideas of the Russian Government. Above all, we trust that those upon whom rests the tremendous responsibility of guiding the destinies of our native land will know how to safeguard our country for the future, so as to prevent any eventual rearrangement of the map of Europe to our disadvantage, leaving us, tomorrow, isolated and unsupported in the midst of rival and distrustful nations.

The writer then turns to an especially unfortunate circumstance for Italy at the present critical period, namely, that her recent conquests in Tripoli are seriously menaced by a native uprising. The supreme

necessity of concentrating all her available resources at home to overcome or resist Austria, renders this a very great peril and raises the question whether in her effort to enlarge her territory at the expense of her powerful neighbor, Italy may not have risked the loss of territory already secured at great cost of blood and treasure. As the significance of this Tripolitan insurrection has been generally overlooked, the following trustworthy data are both interesting and important:

As a rule, colonial conquests furnish for a number of years disagreeable surprises for the colonizing power, as our neighbors across the Alps have experienced in Tunis, and especially in Algeria. This consideration does not, however, in the least lessen the bitter reflections aroused by what has recently happened in Tripoli, just as the region seemed to be finally pacified. The last conflict, at Sirta, has assumed a notable importance, both because of the treachery on a large scale of the irregular native auxiliaries, and because of the sad number of victims who died the death of heroes in the unequal combat.

The rebellion of a part of the native population, beginning in the interior and gradually spreading toward the coast, is of extreme gravity, and it is indeed to be deplored that the necessities of the international situation have not allowed us to take immediate and severe repressive measures, which would perhaps have checked this dangerous movement at the very outset. As, however, we did not wish to send troops from our national territory and were even obliged to retire our garrisons from the interior and to momentarily confine our effective occupation to the zone along the coast, it was inevitable that with populations accustomed to yield only to force, our retirement should seem a confession of weakness, and should therefore give greater encouragement to the insurgents.

We shall now be forced to traverse again the route that will make our sovereignty effective up to the boundaries of the colony. This must be done deliberately and firmly; above all, the central government and the colonial administration must have a clear and definite plan, for it has too often happened in our brief colonial history,

that only spasmodic efforts have been made, without any decided program and without any unity of action between the directing power in Rome and the local authorities. This is a very grave fault, one that has already proved very costly for other nations, and which might have exceedingly disastrous results.

MAX NORDAU'S ATTITUDE IN THE WAR

FOR many generations Paris has been not only the capital of France, but, in a sense, a capital of nations. Men of letters, artists, musicians, and political refugees from the rest of Europe,—from all over the world, for that matter,—have found within her liberal borders intellectual hospitality as well as corporeal entertainment. Many a prophet has found his own country most ready to honor him after he had conquered public attention and applause in the city by the Seine.

It is but natural that in such instances a man of genius who has first gained recognition in France has found it convenient and profitable for various reasons to retain his residence in the city of his adoption, though feeling himself none the less a son of Italy, or Austria, Russia, or Germany. To men thus owing a divided allegiance the present conflict has in many instances brought grave embarrassment. They have been looked on with suspicion by fellow-countrymen on the one hand and by fellow-citizens on the other, and are placed in the difficult position of being called on to declare a partisan bias at the risk of being considered renegades or spies.

A very conspicuous instance is that of the famous Max Nordau, by birth a German of Jewish ancestry, but resident for many years in his adopted country, France, and frequent contributor to leading French periodicals, among others *La Revue*. So many requests have come to this journal for a statement of Nordau's attitude that the editor devotes a special page to its answer. He points out, to begin with, that the author of "Conventional Lies" did not sign the famous "manifesto of the 93," and he continues:

Far from desiring to defend Germany and her barbarous people, he has published since the beginning of the war a series of articles and studies favorable to France and indirectly blaming the Kaiser, his people, and his diplomats. . . . Though very severe towards certain writers and certain literary tendencies, the author of "Degeneracy" has never published anything, during his long career as a philosopher, moralist, and critic, against France and her people. And if he has

often been hard upon the symbolists and the decadents, he has been an equally resolute foe of Wagner, of Nietzsche, and of many German writers and artists.

M. Finot then quotes from a letter which appeared recently in *Le Temps* and *Le Figaro* wherein Nordau protests against accusations of Francophobia, adding:

I should have the right to disdain these attacks, but I count too many friends in France whose opinion is of moment to me to let them rest under the impression of allegations of whose falsity they cannot at present convince themselves.

At the present moment the legal fiction which admits of no exception for individual cases, makes of me theoretically an enemy of France, because I am a subject of a country with which she is at war. In spite of that I do not hesitate to invoke your equity, to which even an adversary in spite of himself will not appeal in vain, to beg you to permit me to protest indignantly against the injurious fabrications by which I am pursued.

I enclose herewith some articles which I have published in prominent journals of Berlin and Vienna since the beginning of the war. You can judge for yourself, *Monsieur le Directeur*, whether I deserve any credit for talking of France as I have done in the places where I have.

M. Nordau, who has at present established himself at Madrid, adds that during his thirty-seven years of residence in Paris he has always sought to do justice to France, to proclaim his admiration for her moral, intellectual, and artistic greatness, and to dissipate dangerous prejudices against her at certain critical moments. He closes his letter with the words:

I could cite Parisian journals which have more than once recognized my modest efforts with praise, and could publish letters and dedications signed by the most illustrious French names which have rewarded my labors upon the men, the ideas, and the works of France. But this would be neither dignified nor delicate. I confine myself to saying that it is not at this hour of destiny that I would change my sentiments and my attitude towards the France which is the legal fatherland of my children.

As a confirmation of the attitude thus indicated, other writings by Nordau are cited.

RECRUITING IN ENGLAND

A PROPOS of the strenuous efforts now being made throughout Great Britain to enlist soldiers for service in the great war, as described by ex-Senator Beveridge elsewhere in this REVIEW, there have been several frank expressions of opinion in the English reviews. In the *Fortnightly*, for example, a Member of Parliament, Mr. L. G. Chiozza Money, does not hesitate to criticize the methods employed by his government to induce volunteering.

Mr. Money complains that accurate knowledge as to the progress of recruiting and the results of the government's recruiting machinery is denied even to members of Parliament. But taking into account the facts that lie on the surface and are known to all men, this writer finds that "an enormous amount of money is being spent in issuing the most extraordinary series of advertisements ever issued by a government. In every newspaper and on every wall, there appear variegated appeals not only to men of military age, but to the wives, mothers, sisters, employers, friends, and acquaintances of men of military age. Some of these appeals are so extravagant that a visitor from Mars might be pardoned for believing them to be the handiwork of desperate men in whom rhetoric had got the better of reason. Many of them are apparently intended to create a feeling of shame in the minds of unrecruited young men."

One of these advertisements in which the writer addresses "four questions to the women of England" reads in part as follows:

Do you realize that the one word "Go" from YOU may send another man to fight for our King and Country?

When the War is over and your husband or son

is asked, "What did you do in the great War?"—is he to hang his head because YOU would not let him go?

To this was added: "Women of England, do your duty! Send your men to-day to join our glorious army. God save the King!"

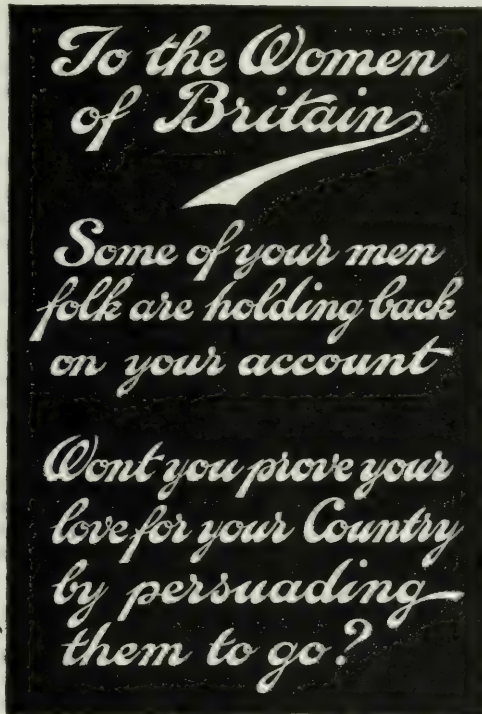
Mr. Money cannot refrain from raising the question whether a "volunteer" who would be shamed into going to war by such an appeal as

the above would be a really valuable soldier. The main suggestion, however, made by these and other costly advertisements is that recruiting cannot be altogether satisfactory if it is thought necessary to resort to appeals of such a character.

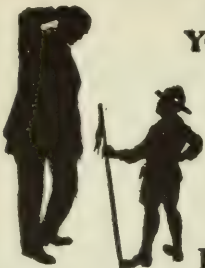
Alluding to the government's boast that 72,000 railroad men have been recruited for the war,—an achievement that was described by the Prime Minister as "magnificent,"—Mr. Money is tempted to say that it may be magnificent, but it is not necessarily war. His point is that when a nation is organized for war its railroads become an integral part of its

military operations, and if you send to the fighting line a single man who ought to be at his post helping to operate a railroad system a serious error is committed. The same thing is true in regard to men in other forms of necessary industrial employment.

As a result of the English recruiting system it seems clear that certain trades which are essential to the proper organization of the nation for war are being depleted, while many men whose services are of a different sort and who can much better be spared for the fighting-line are still unrecruited. It is asserted that many married men are taken while there are still an enormous number of unmarried men available.



SAMPLE RECRUITING POSTER



**WHAT WILL
YOUR ANSWER BE**

When your boy
asks you—

**'FATHER—WHAT
DID YOU DO
TO HELP WHEN
BRITAIN FOUGHT
FOR FREEDOM
IN 1915'**

ENLIST NOW



THINK!

**ARE YOU CONTENT FOR
HIM TO FIGHT FOR YOU?**

WONT YOU DO YOUR BIT?

**WE SHALL WIN
BUT YOU MUST HELP**

JOIN TO-DAY

It is Mr. Money's contention that in order to obtain a maximum of military and economic strength from the nation promiscuous recruiting must be stopped at once. That every man of military age, whatever his rank or station, must be considered in relation to the national problem, and such part of that manhood as can be utilized for military purposes with the least loss of economic strength be taken. In this way there would be retained for the production of wealth, and especially for such commodities as are required for war material, that part of the country's labor forces that can best supply its needs.

While admitting that in this war the middle classes in England have played a better part than ever before, Mr. Money is still convinced that the proportion of recruiting from the middle classes has been much smaller than from the working classes. He regards it as unfortunate for the nation "that a vigorous young man of the middle classes should stop at home while a railroad man or miner goes to war, and the nation ought to see to it that such a double loss does not occur as that we should keep those we can spare and send those away whom we need at home."

An American observer, Mr. William C. Edgar, editor of the *Bellman* (Minneapolis), noted the use of the brass band as a supplemental agency in a recruiting campaign in progress in London. Troops marched through the streets, he says, to the sound of lively music. Some of the glamor of war was restored and the possible recruit was moved to action through not only his mind, but his imagination as well.

Mr. Edgar was impressed, however, by the posters, placards, and labels seen everywhere in London and throughout the United Kingdom as interesting and graphic evidences of a vigorous attempt being made to rouse the people to the national danger to the end that they may volunteer for service.

Lethargy and self-complacency, a feeling that the war is being conducted on foreign soil and therefore does not directly and immediately affect the individual Briton, retards recruiting to some degree; hence it is necessary to stir up the public to the gravity of the situation by every possible means.

The trouble in England, as Mr. Edgar sees it, is not from lack of confidence in the outcome nor from want of courage, but from a prevailing sentiment, especially among the less intelligent, that the Allies are sure to win anyhow and that there is no necessity for enlisting, at least for the present.

In a remarkable editorial published immediately after Lord Kitchener's call in May for 300,000 more recruits, the London *Spectator* declares:

If he had asked for a million, or even two million, more men we should not have been surprised, though even then, taking the Army and Navy together, we should not be doing, per head of population, more than, or even as much as, the French, and should be doing a very great deal less than the Germans. At such a juncture as this to ask for only three hundred thousand men literally makes one's brain reel. It would seem to show one of two things: either Lord Kitchener during the ten months that have elapsed since the beginning of the war has obtained far more men than the nation has any idea of, or else—which, of course, is a perfectly incredible, ridiculous, and impossible supposition,—Lord Kitchener is not aware of the wastage of war, and is under the delusion that the cadres of his fighting force can be kept up to strength (the absolutely essential condition for an efficient army) without a huge reserve.

A very little consideration will show that the notion of such a miscalculation on the part of so great a soldier as Lord Kitchener must be dismissed. We must not make any calculation as to the exact numbers of the men who are at this moment outside England fighting our enemies. Let us assume, however, purely for the sake of argument, that, taking into consideration not only the army in Flanders, but our forces at the Dardanelles, on the Persian Gulf, and in other parts of the world, we shall soon have a million men in the field. But when our men are fighting as they are bound to fight this summer, for the summer is the soldier's season, if we average the war wastage of the great battle months, such as May

has proved, with that of the quiet months, it will at the very least be 10 per cent. per month. [It may of course prove to be much more.] This means an immediate wastage of one hundred thousand a month to be made good. It means that unless one hundred thousand fresh men are raised every month, the armies in the field will begin to wither away. Of course up till now there has been no such wastage. We are speaking of the future,—of the period when the New Army will be at the front.

If no new men are raised, an army of a million would in ten months cease to exist. Therefore Lord Kitchener's new army of three hundred thousand, if he got them by June 1st, would have disappeared by September 1st.

Admitting that Lord Kitchener has other great supplies of men for drafting purposes and could keep 1,000,000 men in the field for a year without using these extra 300,000,

the *Spectator* regards it as still probable that England will want to have ultimately not 1,000,000 men but a million and a half in the field and a million and a half at home to feed them. The *Spectator's* only suggestion to explain Lord Kitchener's policy is that he intends to make successive calls at short intervals for additional enlistment. This policy the *Spectator* regards as wholly unsatisfactory, and ventures to predict that within a few months there will be an imperative need for supplying drafts to the British army at the front and that the voluntary system will prove inadequate to supply them. Then the government will be compelled to adopt a policy of compulsion, or what in this country was known as the draft in the Civil War.

THE FUTURE OF HOLLAND

A RECENT issue of *La Revue* (Paris) contains a most significant article from the pen of H. G. Wells, the noted English writer, on Holland's future, what course it would be the part of wisdom for her to pursue in the present conflict, and other vitally interesting points. The article is prefaced by an editorial note to the effect that the events of the last weeks lend a tense interest to Wells' contentions, adding that the Dutch papers, even those the most friendly to the Germans, now maintain that Germany's annexation of Belgium would strike a death-blow at Holland.

What changes, Mr. Wells asks, may be wrought by the war in Holland's status? What is likely to be her fate in the near future?

It is an indisputable fact that at the present moment Holland holds the key to the European situation.

At the outset of the war there was reason to fear that Holland's neutrality might be violated, but the danger of a German attack is daily diminishing. Holland's position to-day is one of immense material consequence to Germany and of sincere moral integrity as regards the Allies. From the outbreak of hostilities and during a momentous crisis she has borne herself patiently and loyally; has endured inevitable provocations honestly and with dignity. Should she be subjected now to a German outrage and hurl her fine army of over 400,000 men upon Aix-la-Chapelle she would hold Germany in check by a swift defeat. And that is the important point in Holland's present position.

She holds a keen-edged sword suspended over Germany! Did it ever occur to her to join the

German side? She would, no doubt, have effectively reinforced Germany's western front, but her action would not have been a decisive factor in the war. Should she, on the contrary, join the Allies, it would have a quite different significance. Let us frankly admit it—she would strike a decisive blow in the conflict. Cutting off the main routes of the German army in Flanders, she would surround, would help to capture, the greater part of the German western army, and would not only open the way to an attack on the Rhine, but, more important still, would divert its defensive forces. In fact, she would very rapidly give a finishing stroke to the German Empire. This is not divulging a strategic secret; one need but look at the map to confirm its truth.

Each day diminishes Germany's chances of offensive action, but each day, likewise, the destruction of Belgium goes on; the misery of its inhabitants, whom Holland could succor and deliver, grows apace. Why does she hesitate to join the Allies? Is she satisfied as she is, because her liberty remains intact—with the Allies, practically, fighting to insure it to her?

Has the fear of Germanization, which has harassed her for over forty years, vanished, then, into thin air? Or does she fear that the "good," vindictive Germans may make a last, supreme effort in devastating her?

Let us not try to blink the fact: Unless Holland intervenes the war will last a long time. It is essential for the whole world that it should cease!

It is a terrible burden for Holland herself to keep her army mobilized, even without fighting; her commerce is stagnant; she is encumbered with all manner of refugees; does not self-interest counsel her to adopt a course which will hasten the end of this state of things?

Mr. Wells' impression of the Dutch,—and the English, he maintains, understand the Dutch character well,—is that they are not very easily daunted. The fear of German

retaliation would have no great weight with them; what would rather incite them to action would be a feeling of compassion for the little, heroic Belgian nation and the desire to teach the impudent Germans a wholesome lesson. In joining the Allies Holland would do more than put an end to a grievous conflict; she would bravely defend right and justice, and would emerge considerably enlarged from the European convulsion.

It would be absurd to suppose that Germany should have perpetrated so many infamies and outrages in Belgium and the beautiful provinces of France without her having to pay an abundant and bitter penalty for her crimes. Besides an immense indemnity, France and Belgium must push their frontiers far beyond their present ones. The integrity of Liège will be guaranteed by the annexation of the German district extending from Aix-la-Chapelle to Cologne. France will extend to the Rhine.

Do not let us talk any longer of buffer states, since Germany cannot respect them.

The case standing thus, Holland may look forward to having as her neighbor a greater and stronger Belgium, closely allied to France and England. Moreover, would Great Britain tolerate Germany's possession of East Friesland, which is a constant menace to her on the north of Holland? She will use her best efforts to secure a lasting peace in the future, but, justly, to insure it, Germany should be driven beyond the North Sea; since England does not covet East Friesland, Holland could, to her own advantage, incorporate this detached province.

And now let us imagine the impossible: The allies were unable to annihilate German militarism. What would be Holland's fate twenty years after? Belgium and France intimately united by

common trials, with a common language and literature, developed, regenerated, grown too powerful to tempt Germany to a new aggression, the latter will turn all its hatred against England alone, and profiting by the experience of 1914, she will, without scruple, violate isolated Holland in order to make her way to the mouth of the Rhine, thus unhesitatingly demonstrating her vindictive rancor at Holland's lukewarmness towards Teuton brotherhood.

In view of all these considerations, Holland ought ardently to desire the end of German supremacy and definitely join the great alliance of the Western powers.

England is disposed to protect by the surveillance of its navy the integrity of the Dutch colonial possessions; the mutual protection of the four united Western states, England, France, Belgium, and Holland would be the best guarantee of the security of them all. Only thus can Holland emerge a stronger state!

Truly, this course is alluring. Hundreds of Dutch citizens are at this moment studying the map and thinking of all these things. Granting that Holland will remain intact, as a reward for her neutrality, what will happen to her in the future? She will remain isolated, with little hope and no friends, exposed to being girdled about by the good Teuton brotherhood, who will see to it that the German language shall gradually replace the Dutch, will without scruple Germanize her colonies and subordinate her commerce to that of Hamburg, Altona, or Antwerp!

No! no! never will a sound nation consent to such a promiscuity with Germany!

Even without serious violations of her neutrality Holland will decide to push her troops on towards Belgium. With slight effort she could relieve and deliver her martyred neighbor; by the mere movement of her army she would compel Germany to evacuate her sister nation. At present the power of directing the course of European events lies in her hands!

RUSSIA, POLAND, AND THE DARDANELLES

AS Italy is now making common cause with the powers of the Triple Entente and is destined to have an important voice in the eventual adjustment of the map of Europe in case the fortunes of war favor this side, an Italian opinion as to the claims and expectations of Russia, in respect to Austrian territory especially, possesses considerable interest. More particularly when the opinion comes from one who has had such excellent opportunities for forming it as Signor Melegari, who was the Italian Ambassador to St. Petersburg from 1905 to 1913. Signor Melegari contributes an article on the subject to *Nuova Antologia* (Rome).

That Russian demands, in case of victory, will not only concern her own national re-

quirements, but also those of Serbia and Montenegro is, of course, well known, and also that Russia's supreme aim is, as it has ever been, the possession of Constantinople and the control of the Dardanelles. Whether or no she would be able to overcome or conjure the suspicious jealousy of the other powers so as to gain their consent may be open to doubt.

In regard to Austrian territory, however, apart from the requirement that Serbia should secure that part inhabited by those of Serbian speech, there is a general belief that Russia would annex Eastern Galicia, combining this province with her own Polish possessions, and perhaps with Prussian Poland, into a new, more or less autonomous

Poland under Russian control. As to this, however, Signor Melegari is not very confident; indeed, he inclines to the opinion that Russian mistrust might prevent the carrying out of the plan. Weighing the arguments for and against this course, he says:

In favor of a partial or complete annexation of Eastern Galicia many weighty motives of a historical order might be adduced. In the first place, this would restore to Russia a land which in past times formed an integral part of the domains of the Princes of Kieff, who combined to form a state that preserved its independence under Russian princes of the house of Rurik until the Polish conquest; secondly, there dwell in this territory four million Russians (Ruthenians), who during five centuries have given ample proofs of national steadfastness, and, thirdly, the present open frontier of Podolia and Volinia would be replaced by that formed by the Dniester and the San, or even better, by the great natural barrier of the Carpathians.

On the other hand, considerations of a more general character, even from an exclusively Russian viewpoint, might be brought forward against the annexation. The loss of the vast Galician domains, which in area and population represent but little less than one-quarter of the entire complex of Austrian territory, to say nothing of the further amputations that would be demanded in favor of Serbia and other countries, would perhaps result in a complete transformation of the Austro-Hungarian Empire as at present constituted, leaving as sole survivors the more vigorous nationalities, such as the Magyars and the Germans, and this would imply a greater peril for Russia than the present complicated structure of the duplex monarchy. The subtraction of from six to eight million Galicians would reduce the Slavonic element to a feeble minority, giving a crushing superiority to the Hungarians and Germans. Austro-Hungary would then be nothing more than a satellite of Germany, a blind instrument in her hands for any future enterprises.

The dislike of Germany and the Germans felt by many Russians has its roots rather in the successful utilization of the vast resources of the Russian Empire by Germans in Russia for their own benefit than in any racial antipathy. The fact that the Germans have been able to establish a ruinous competition in many branches of Russian industry and commerce has made them unpopular with their unsuccessful competitors. This, however, chiefly concerns the business world of Russia and should not be taken as indicative of Russian opinion as a whole. Of the various factors that favor a good understanding with Germany, Signor Melegari writes:

Whatever may be the popularity of a war, it cannot entirely wipe out the past; it is impossible in a single moment to change into implacable hatred the sentiments resulting from an affinity

of blood, from habits of long standing, from common memories. Hence many of the political leaders, long accustomed to regard the maintenance of friendly relations with Germany as one of the cardinal principles of Russian diplomacy, while recognizing the necessity of the present war, felt but little enthusiasm for it. It will be very difficult to bring them to share in the views of those who, in Russia as well as in the other allied nations, categorically demand the destruction of Germany, as though it were possible to crush a people that has shown such indomitable power of national resistance. Moreover, it is not upon a basis of violence and destruction that can be raised the structure of a really stable and enduring peace.

The annexation of Eastern Galicia would oblige Russia, conformably to the pledges made by the commander-in-chief, Grand Duke Nicholas, in his proclamation to the Poles, to give to Poland, under the Russian sceptre, a large degree of autonomy. It remains to be seen whether such a program, in direct contradiction to the policy constantly followed for forty years by Russia, not only in regard to Poland, but also in regard to Finland, to the Caucasian provinces and to the Baltic provinces, can be regarded as compatible with the security of the Russian Empire and with the requirements of national defense.

Poland is indeed united with Russia by the bonds of race, but it is separated by centuries of national rivalry, by the incompatibility resulting from differences of faith, of traditions and of civilization. To these innate antipathies must be added the inextinguishable hatred of the Poles against the usurpers of their native land. During a century of foreign domination, interrupted from time to time by futile insurrections rigorously repressed, the Poles have guarded intact their national virtues, as well as their defects, which conspire to render them a turbulent and dangerous element for Russia.

In conclusion, the writer emphasizes in the strongest possible way the unshakable determination of Russia to secure the outlet to the Mediterranean that has ever been the dream of her rulers and statesmen. His long and intimate acquaintance with Russian politics makes these closing words of his paper especially worthy of consideration, and perhaps we may see in them an indication of Italy's eventual attitude in the matter:

As to the question of the Dardanelles and of Constantinople, Russian public opinion has already assumed a firmly decisive tone, and is ready, when the occasion arises, to make itself heard with no uncertain voice. It will admit neither subterfuges nor palliatives; it will demand that the Gordian knot be sharply cut, and in Russia's favor. It might consent that Constantinople should remain Turkish, but it would never consent that any other power than Russia should acquire that city.

• Russia feels that her sturdy shoulders are expected to sustain the major part of the burden of this war, and she is ready and willing to spare no effort to bring it to a successful conclusion, but she will never permit that she should be cheated out of the reward which is her due.

THE LEADERS OF ANARCHY IN MEXICO

IN the last of a series of articles contributed by Caspar Whitney to the *Outlook* (New York) during May the leaders of the several factions in that unhappy country are briefly characterized. Mr. Whitney's own views as to the possible outcome of present conditions in Mexico are by no means optimistic. Barring the intervention of the United States, it seems to him that a dictatorship is imminent, but with the possible exception of Francisco Villa he thinks that no one in sight is likely to measure up to the task of pulling the nation up from the depth of anarchy into which she has fallen.

Carranza, says Mr. Whitney, had his chance and failed ignominiously. "Barren of executive ability, though replete with a nimble pettifogging spirit, he aroused the scorn and hatred of all Mexico outside of his immediate camp. That he is also stupid was clearly shown by his patently envious and unreasonable attitude toward Villa, whose fealty he could have retained by fair conduct and unbroken agreement."

A provisional government which the United States would cheerfully have recognized and encouraged could have been formed in August, 1914, with Carranza at its head. But Mr. Whitney does not hesitate to say that at that time Carranza "put harmony out of the question by assumption of authority over men he did not control and of an uprightness he does not possess, as I have tangible evidence to prove."

Both Carranza and Obregon, hating Mexico City and its people, devoted most of their time and effort to searching out the "enemies" of the cause, confiscating their property, and perhaps killing them. Mr. Whitney recapitulates some of Carranza's administrative acts such as closing down the national railway system, closing schools, suppressing newspapers, diverting charity institutional income, nullifying Villa money, and always proclaiming himself "all of the law and the prophets." He is First Chief, says Mr. Whitney, not because his men are loyal to him, but because he is an easy boss to his officers who do as they please, and because Alvaro Obregon, his commanding general, is a bitter hater of Villa.

Gutierrez, ex-Provisional President, and Lucio Blanco, a general who deserted Carranza for Villa, and later went back to his first allegiance, are both dismissed by Mr.

Whitney as unworthy to be taken seriously in a canvass of Mexican leadership.

Obregon [whose name is said to be a Mexican corruption of the Irish name, O. B. Regan] is regarded as the one really strong man among the Carranza generals, and he and Felipe Angeles, of Villa's forces, are ranked by Mr. Whitney as the two strongest military men of Mexico after Villa. Each of these men is said to have a presidential bee in his bonnet and we are likely to hear more of them later. Angeles is well born and well educated, the only man on either side of military fame.

One of the very few trustworthy men in public life in Mexico to-day, according to Mr. Whitney, is Felicitas Villareal, Villa's Minister of Finance, who was arrested by Carranza when Obregon marched into Mexico City on its evacuation by the Zapatistas. If he is not executed by Carranza, Villareal may some day prove to be a real asset to Mexico when the day comes that she can set out about the rehabilitation of her finances.

Of Villa himself, the man to whom most of those outside the factions look for a solution of the present difficulties, Mr. Whitney is not sure whether he will prove equal to the dual task of fighting and playing politics. Yet, without being in any degree intellectual, Villa appears to Mr. Whitney to be a man of resource, great energy and force.

He is a fighter, and a lustful one, who is at his best when he is in the field on the job,—not in the city. He is, too, I believe, more sincere than the others in his expressed wish to bring his country to peace and establish stable government. He has no personal ambition outside of this, he told me; and I credit his assertion, not because he told me so, but because his course since he came prominently before the country as a national leader in the last two years rather corroborates it. He has eased rather than made more difficult, as Carranza has done, the business situation where he could, has set industry a-moving in his own north section, restrained the looting of his men, restricted the sale of pulque, punished graft where he could reach it, has drafted a practical way of adjusting the land or agrarian question, and altogether appears to be a man of common sense—a quality not so often encountered in Mexico.

Yet Mr. Whitney does not regard Villa as the right kind of timber for a beneficent dictator of the Juarez and Diaz type. Notwithstanding his brutal characteristics, his furious outbursts of temper, and his cruelty, Villa is said to have two distinct virtues.



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FRANCESCO VILLA

VENUSTIANO CARRANZA

EMILIANO ZAPATA



© International News Service

FILIPE ANGELES

FELICITAS VILLAREAL

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ALVARO OBREGON

He does not drink and those who have done business with him say that, as a general thing, he keeps his word.

Zapata is not regarded by Mr. Whitney as strictly a national figure in the Mexican question. In Morelos State, his battle-

ground, employing his own efforts at guerilla warfare, Zapata has always been a formidable opponent. His Indian retainers hardly constitute an army and are not strong in the open, but very difficult to dislodge at home in the brush.

THE CELIBATE WOMAN OF TO-DAY

WHY do so many women refuse to marry, and what compensations can a life of celibacy bring them? This is the query propounded by Earl Barnes in the *Popular Science Monthly* for June.

In 1910, there were 8,924,056 women in the United States, neither married, widowed, nor divorced, a total of 29.7 per cent. of all the women over fifteen years of age. There are nearly 400,000 public school teachers in America, hardly any of whom are married. Have the regulations in regard to married teachers been the sole prohibitive agent in keeping these teachers in a life of celibacy?

The author thinks that the "growth in

democratic ideals which has been steadily working among women since 1870, has much to do with it."

Women have ceased to be merely "the sex"; they have become individuals . . . a woman seeks fulfillment not only for her personal liking, but for all the qualities of her varied personal life.

The celibate woman retains her freedom of action. Through study, travel, art, science, or society, she may reach a degree of self-realization not always attained by her sister who marries.

The desire for service which lies so deep in the nature of all good women can often be more fully realized in a life of personal freedom than in one of marriage. At least there may be a different realization of very great value to the individual and to society. Such women as Clara Barton,

Susan B. Anthony, and Jane Addams have brought gifts of service to mankind far beyond what they would probably have given in their own homes.

Woman to-day shares with man the desire to possess life vicariously. She has become self-conscious,—awkwardly so in some instances,—and the follower after the joy of vital experience. Her superior intelligence is a barrier to early marriage, as she has isolated herself from her class, and failing to reach the man her intellect desires, she will not accept the one who is beneath her in education and intelligence.

The social emancipation of women lags far behind her intellectual and economic freedom, so that the young women we are considering still move socially in their family planes. The men in that group are too ignorant and too poor to suit her; and the men with whom she works know her only as a stenographer, a teacher, or a journalist.

And beyond this there is a restriction of public meeting-places for the woman or girl who is not socially fortunate; they move in a small treadmill. "The hunting field is narrow and the difficulty of selection has increased."

A generation ago, a girl might hope to find a desirable mate among a dozen acquaintances.

Now she needs to look over a hundred young men to find her own.

The wonder is not that we have so many unmarried women in America, but that we have so few. Nature has loaded the dice in favor of marriage and she generally has her own way. Many of these young women, however, will never marry. Nuns will continue to vow their virginity to the Celestial Bridegroom; reformers will spend their lives in securing social justice for their sisters and their sisters' children; professional women will seek fame and service; teachers will fight off the wars of the future, not with submarines and aeroplanes, but with ideas and ideals implanted and nourished in young minds. Many other women, with no particular devotion to sustain them, will be held by the charm of the pay envelope and independent latch-key until it is too late; while the accidents of fate will leave many stranded in their struggle towards a complete life.

Meantime there can be no doubt that the most complete life a woman can live, at least between the ages of twenty-five and forty-five, is found in a marriage based on a deep and lasting love.

Beyond certain negative values, the only real compensation Mr. Barnes finds for the celibate women who cannot attain to the perfection of wedded happiness, lies in self-realization through vicarious living, and though their lives are biologically lost, there still remains their service to the forces of civilization and culture.

THE ULTRA-VIOLET RAYS IN CHEMISTRY AND BIOLOGY

THE eminent French scientist, Daniel Berthelot, has for some years been making an investigation of the ultra-violet rays; his experiments have revealed much of interest, and recently culminated in the sensational discovery that by their means a synthesis of carbon dioxide and water vapor can be obtained such as is made by the living plant when sunshine acts on the chlorophyll, or green coloring matter of its leaves. Thus for the first time the chemist has accomplished in his laboratory a feat which had been supposed necessitated the vital activity of the plant.

In a lecture given lately by M. Berthelot before the Society of Civil Engineers in Paris, and reported in *Cosmos* (Paris), this and other remarkable properties of these rays are described. M. Berthelot even goes so far as to express the view that the twentieth century may be as notable for its mechanical and practical applications of light as the nineteenth century was for those of elec-

tricity and the eighteenth for those of heat.

The ultra-violet rays, though invisible to the human eye, are none the less to be considered as rays of light. They occur beyond the violet end of the spectrum and are made known by their chemical effects, as, for instance, on a photographic film or on the pigment in the skin. Their essential characteristic is their high potential of energy. M. Berthelot says:

Just as an electric furnace at 3000° C. has a higher thermic potential than a coke furnace at 1000° C., a mercury lamp producing ultra-violet rays vibrating at the rate of 2000 trillion oscillations per second has a higher luminous potential than a mere gas jet vibrating at 600 trillions per second.

The ultra-violet rays are produced abundantly by the sun, but are almost entirely absorbed by the atmosphere, except on high mountains, where they cause the sunstrokes well known to Alpinists. To-day we produce them artificially by various devices, of which the most efficacious is the electric arc between metal, and especially the lamp of mercury vapor in a quartz vacuum tube. The

ultra-violet rays are arrested by glass and by most of the transparent mediums pervious to ordinary light.

This is why quartz is used, and it has other advantages. Thus it can be raised to very high temperatures, at which glass would melt or soften, and this quality is important because it is under just such conditions that its use is most economical. Then, even when hot, it can be plunged into cold water without breaking, owing to the very slight dilatation of the quartz. This quality is especially valuable when the rays are used to sterilize water, for which purpose they are being increasingly employed. M. Berthelot continues:

The ultra-violet rays are the most dangerous known. Even at a distance of a few decimeters (a decimeter is less than $\frac{1}{2}$ inch) they will cause in less than a minute burns of the skin, sunstrokes, and painful affections of the eye. The reverse of the medal is more agreeable. These rays kill almost instantly the monocellular organisms, microbes and bacteria. But clear water is one of the liquids most transparent to the ultra-violet rays. . . . Hence they lend themselves perfectly to the sterilization of drinking water. . . .

Another application of a more general order and less immediately exploitable is the rôle they play as an agent for restoring chemical energy in the world. . . . The plant takes the two gases set free by animal respiration (carbon dioxide and water-vapor) and combines them to form the sugars and other carbohydrates which furnish food to men and animals. . . . Thus the animal diffuses matter into the gaseous state from the solid; the plant concentrates it anew, making it pass from the gaseous state to the solid. The animal degrades chemical energy; the plant restores it.

This synthetic function of green plants in sunlight has not till recently been reproduced in our laboratories. . . . I have been able to prove, in the course of researches conducted in my laboratory of vegetable physics at Meudon, that this function is not a property peculiar to living matter, but is due to light. In other words, it is not *vital*, but physico-chemical activity. It is precisely this superior energetic quality of ultra-violet light, which our predecessors had not at their disposal, which has enabled me to succeed where they failed.

By exposing a mixture of carbon dioxide and water-vapor to the ultra-violet rays from a mercury lamp, in a series of experiments conducted with the help of his assistant, M. Gandeckon, M. Berthelot proved that these two gases, containing, respectively, carbon and oxygen, and hydrogen and oxygen, united to form saccharine substances containing the three elements, carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, precisely as they combine in living plants to form such substances.

This photo-synthesis of ternary compounds being successfully accomplished, the next step was an attempt to form quaternary compounds, *i. e.*, those containing nitrogen as well as carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen:

Under the influence of the ultra-violet rays the two simplest mineral gases which contain these four elements, *i. e.*, carbon dioxide and ammonia gas, unite to form the first in the series of quaternary compounds, formic amide, the point of departure for the building of those substances known as albuminoids or proteids, the base of protoplasm and living matter. My father showed long ago how one might manufacture alimentary substances synthetically; but it was by processes very different from those in nature, by means of energetic chemical reagents which are little compatible with life. . . . To-day, thanks to the ultra-violet rays, we are in possession of processes, which, if not economical, are at least of an admirable theoretic simplicity and extremely similar to those employed by nature herself.

In view of this brilliant achievement, it is not to be wondered at that M. Berthelot ventures to predict that some day we may call on the engineer instead of the farmer for at least a part of our food supply in some circumstances! The next feature discussed in his lecture was the purification of the atmosphere by these rays. He observed:

These facts involve an important hygienic application. An animal placed in an air-tight enclosure (a submarine boat, for example), little by little transforms the oxygen of the air into carbon dioxide, and dies asphyxiated. But if we place in a bell-jar both an animal and a green plant and then expose both to the sun the animal will continue to live. The plant purifies the air vitiated by the animal; it decomposes the carbon dioxide and liberates oxygen. But the mercury lamp plays the same rôle as the sun in such a case. If humid air vitiated by respiration be made to circulate about such a lamp it will gradually regain oxygen and become respirable. It is not too much to hope that processes of this nature may some day serve to purify the air of submarines and unventilatable enclosures.

The final topic in this notable address was the reproduction of the principal types of fermentation by means of the ultra-violet rays. Physiologists have long been able to digest food artificially by placing it in a water-bath kept at the temperature of the human body, and adding the proper ferments or diastases. And now M. Berthelot has obtained similar digestive operations by placing sugars, fats, and albumens in quartz bulbs and submitting them to the ultra-violet rays! To use his own startling words:

We have here digestion by light. The ultra-violet rays replace the ferments. The bulb represents an artificial stomach made of rock crystal.

NEW LIGHT ON THE FOOT-AND-MOUTH DISEASE

BUT for the manner in which international affairs have absorbed newspaper space and taken public attention, the country would have been made to realize more keenly the seriousness of the plague of so-called "foot-and-mouth" disease that swept across the country with great rapidity last fall and winter, with recurrence here and there during the spring. Although this disease attacks all sorts of domestic animals, its greatest danger has been to herds of dairy cattle. Measures taken by the Government consisted of rigid quarantine of the States or counties or districts infected,—together with the prompt slaughter and burial in quicklime of diseased animals and herds.

It so happened that the International Dairy Show had brought together at Chicago, last November, some hundreds of animals constituting the most valuable collection of high-pedigreed livestock ever assembled at any given time or place. These notable representatives of the Holstein, Guernsey, Ayrshire, Jersey, and other families (many individuals being worth several thousand dollars each) became infected with foot-and-mouth disease from the Chicago stockyards. The United States Government yielded to persuasion, and spared these animals from slaughter. It was arranged that they should be kept isolated for a few weeks, and then placed under strict quarantine upon a farm in the vicinity of Chicago, where they would be brought under close observation and the disease could be studied.

Dr. Joseph Hughes had charge of these cattle, and he has now made public some very interesting results of their internment. *Hoard's Dairyman*, in an extended article, reports an address given by Dr. Hughes, late in May, before a breeders' association in Wisconsin. To begin with conclusions, let it be said that these hundreds of fine animals came through the foot-and-mouth malady as through a short period of fever, all of them recovered perfectly excepting perhaps four that were eliminated for other reasons, and great light is thrown upon the nature and course of the disease and its treatment.

To quote from the article in the *Dairyman*:

The speaker felt certain that by the first of June the cattle would be declared by the United States Government free of all danger of carrying the disease and would be allowed to return home, to

the joy of the owners and the contentment of their pocketbooks. The authorities of several States have already written that as soon as the cattle get a clean bill of health from the federal government, they will be glad to receive them back into their States.

The speaker, during the course of his remarks, criticized indirectly the federal officials for certain sins of omission and commission, but stated that he heartily endorsed the work done by the department in stamping out the disease and that the officials in charge were worthy of great credit for the work accomplished. He also stated his conviction that the slaughter method of combating the disease was the best and cheapest for the United States.

It is interesting to note the way in which the question of continued or latent infection was met and answered. After the cattle had been interned for about ten weeks, fifty steers and fifty hogs, together with a few calves, were purchased in the neighborhood and put in contact with the quarantined dairy animals. This was in order "to determine whether it was possible for these Dairy Show cattle to give the disease to other animals, and whether it would be safe to finally release them from quarantine."

The United States Department of Agriculture sent six representatives, two of whom were considered experts in this disease, to conduct an experimental test. After holding the test cattle in quarantine for a month, on March 26 fifty of the steers were brought into the stable and placed at various intervals between cattle that had had the disease, the calves being still segregated for experimental purposes. In addition to experimenting by natural contact of one animal with another, extensive experiments were made in trying to infect these steers. . .

The steers continued to mingle with the dairy cattle from March 26 until May 10, when they were removed. During this period the testing above outlined daily proceeded, but none of the steers have shown any symptoms of foot-and-mouth disease.

Although it is cheering to know that the foot-and-mouth disease is not fatal where animals have good care, and that recovered animals have their full strength and capacity for milk production or other service, it remains true, in the opinion of the experts, that the cheapest and best way to deal with this infectious plague is to eliminate with the utmost promptness every animal or herd from which the malady could spread to adjacent farms. Thus Dr. Hughes and those who have conducted the experiments in Chicago and Wisconsin endorse the policy of the Bureau of Animal Industry at Washington.



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

TURKISH BOY SCOUTS

THE BOY SCOUTS IN WAR TIMES

THE practical value to England of the Boy Scouts in this period of national peril is seriously discussed in the *Hibbert Journal* by Captain Cecil Price. A time of national emergency, says this writer, has found the Boy Scouts organization ready on the instant to contribute its quota to the public weal. As soon as the war cloud threatened to burst over England, word was sent from the Chief Scout, Sir Robert Baden-Powell, to every Scout headquarters in the United Kingdom that all Scouts possible would be needed in the crisis. Within the space of a week all of the 22,000 Scouts in the London area were completely mobilized, as well as all the available Scouts in the country, more especially along the coast. The duties that were at once allotted to these lads were as follows:

Handing out notices to inhabitants, and other duties connected with billeting, commandeering, warning, etc.

Carrying out communications by means of despatch riders, signallers, wireless, etc.

Guarding and patrolling bridges, culverts, telegraph lines, etc., against damage by individual spies.

Collecting information as to supplies, transport, etc., available.

Carrying out organized relief measures among inhabitants.

Helping families of men employed in defence duties, or sick or wounded.

Establishing first-aid, dressing, or nursing stations, refuges, dispensaries, soup kitchens, etc., in their club-rooms.

Acting as guides, orderlies, etc.

Forwarding despatches dropped by aircraft.

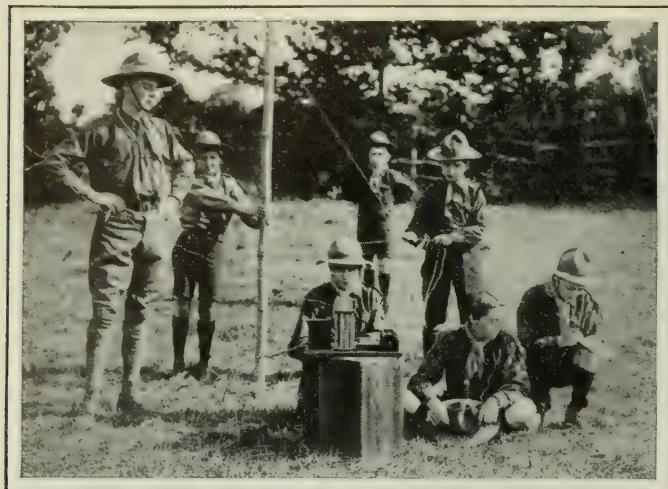
Sea scouts watching estuaries and ports, guiding vessels in unbuoyed channels, or showing lights to friendly vessels, etc., and assisting coastguards.

This by no means exhausts the list.

To show how the Boy Scouts are suited to much of the work that has been entrusted to them, Captain Price gives a brief outline of the kind of training which a Scout has to undergo before he is permitted to wear the efficiency badge. For instance, a boy chosen to assist in a first-aid capacity must have passed a test within ten per cent error. He knows the fireman's lift, how to drag an insensible man with ropes; how to improvise a stretcher; the position of main arteries; how to stop bleeding from vein or artery, internal or external, and how to improvise splints and to diagnose and bind fractured limbs.

The intimate knowledge of the local districts required of Scouts to receive the "Pathfinder" badge should prove extremely useful to troops drafted into different parts of the country and on the coast.

It is computed that fully 20,000 Boy Scouts throughout the Kingdom have been requisitioned for special duties. Some, for instance, were desired to relieve the telegraph department, and ten were designated for patrol work in an aircraft factory at night time. Boy Scouts provided with bicycles act as messengers for the staff of workers at the War Office. The uniform of the



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ENGLISH BOY SCOUTS—THE WIRELESS CORPS

Boy Scouts is recognized by the British Government as the uniform of a public-service, non-military body. The Scouts remain, however, what they have always been, a strictly non-military body, without arms or regulation drill.

Boy Scouts wherever that institution extends, as an example of the highest fidelity to the spirit of Scout Law.

A senior Scout of Belgium, Georges Leyssen, of Liège, a lad of eighteen, was decorated by King Albert and given a commission.

Scouts are even employed to guard the concentration camps where alien enemies are interned.

Captain Price relates the story of the French Boy Scout who was shot by Germans because he refused to betray a party of his countrymen who were ambushed in a wood:

"... He went with firm step to a telegraph post, and stood up against it with the green vineyard at his back, and received the volley of the firing party with a proud smile on his face."

Here was bravery indeed. It is to be hoped that the name and locality of this youthful French hero may be rescued from oblivion, that his gallant deed may be remembered by

THE "DOGS OF WAR" IN MODERN DAYS

IT is reported in history that in 650 B.C., the Greeks of Ionia made use of dogs in their war against the Cimmerians to aid Ardys, the son of Gyges. Doubtless these were wild, wolf-like creatures of savage nature, which not only chased, but seized and tore their human quarry. But in this twentieth century, while dogs form a very important feature of military supplies, their services are chiefly devoted to the humaner side of warfare.

They are, in fact, employed in no less than five ways. Chief among these is that of Red Cross dogs, serving as aids to the ambulance men in finding wounded soldiers who may have crawled off into bushes, woods, ditches, or caves. But they are also employed as post dogs, as questing or search dogs, as sentinels or watch dogs, and finally as draft dogs, to draw mitrailleuses, as well as carts.

A recently-arrived number of *La Nature* (Paris) discourses informingly upon these various offices of man's most familiar and intelligent friend among the lower animals. The Belgian dogs are peculiarly valuable in

these respects, though German, French, and English breeds are also made use of. "For these applications," says the writer, "the French spirit, in Belgium, gave the initiative and primary idea, while Germany followed with methodical organization." He continues thus:



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THE GERMANS USE DOGS TO HELP FIND THE WOUNDED



RED CROSS DOG FINDING WOUNDED SOLDIER

The Belgians have long been interested in dogs, both for sport and for practical purposes. Wherever one goes in Flanders one cannot fail to note the number of vehicles drawn by dogs. Dogs trained to search for the wounded were first exhibited at the dog shows at Ostend and Spa. Some years later there was founded a national society for the improvement of the shepherd dog, which found valuable support in the Institute of Animal Psychology, and in its turn sustained the idea of another group,—the *Société du Chien Sanitaire* (Society of Red Cross Dogs). About the same time similar societies were founded in Germany and France. Their object was the training of the search dog to hunt for the wounded, who often escape the observation of the most attentive ambulance men, while the dog succeeds in unearthing them immediately by his keen scent (*flair*). Shortly afterward the same Belgian lieutenant who had founded the *Société du Chiens Sanitaires*, Lieut. Van de Putti, likewise recognized the aptitude of the draft dog for dragging mitrailleuses.

The leagues already existing for the breeding of draft dogs, profiting by their coöperation, he found the way thus prepared, so that from the beginning of the present war the Belgians have had on hand an army of dogs for drawing their mitrailleuses.

At this point the writer remarks that since it would be indiscreet to give precise information as to the provision in this respect made by his French compatriots, he will describe the German organization, leaving us to infer that the French is conducted on similar lines of efficiency. He states that a society for shepherd-dogs has existed in Germany since 1880, having at present 4000 members, and publishing a list of 45,000 dogs, of which 4000 forming a military register are characterized by special aptitudes. These are divided as follows:

1. Police dogs,—P. H. (H. stands for hound.)

2. Red Cross or Sanitary Dogs for hunting out the wounded,—S. H.

3. Searching or questing dogs,—Z. H.

4. Post dogs,—P. H.

5. Sentinel and watch dogs,—W. & B. H.

These comprise two armies, one in active service, and one composed of reserves. Finally there is a training department attached to the Sanitäts Division.

The best Belgian breeds, perfected by years of inheritance and selection, are the Malinois, Groenendael, and Tervueren. Besides these, the Germans use various breeds, including a shepherd dog originating in the valley of Munster, in Alsace, and in the valley of the Bâle, etc., as well as the Airedale terrier, which is likewise much used by the English and Russians.

Even in times of peace the battalions of *chasseurs* employ post dogs and sentinel dogs, while other regiments have as many as ten dogs apiece. As an advance sentinel a well-trained dog easily hides in a furrow or behind a bush or hillock. Having acute ears he easily detects the slightest unusual sound. In such case he does not bark, but returns to the sharp-shooters, apprising them they must be on their guard. He is thus a valuable aid in avoiding surprises by night.

He is also a useful companion for a spy. If the latter, for example, is signalling by a luminous kite, the dog runs to warn his master in case a patrol comes up suddenly, whereupon the spy cuts the string and assumes an air of innocent unconcern. The search dog accompanies a patrol and beats the ground for an enemy in ambush, just as he would rouse a hare.

In post dogs, use is made of the remarkable faculty of recognition of individuals possessed by some dogs in order to deliver secret messages. The sanitary or Red Cross dogs are very intelligent in finding wounded men who might else be left to die. The chief physician holds the dog on a long leash, which is slipped at an opportune moment. Thanks to a bell on the dog's neck, his itinerary can be followed, and when he makes a discovery he barks incessantly.

Finally, dogs are used to drag mitrailleuses and munitions. Without referring to what is now occurring in France, we may add that the French have employed a similar organization in Morocco, where Gen. Lyavtey last year made use of thirty draft dogs in an expedition.

THE LIBERAL ARTS AND SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

PROFESSOR GRANT SHOWERMAN, of the University of Wisconsin, offers a thoughtful discussion in the *Popular Science Monthly*, on "The Liberal Arts and Scientific Management." He holds that it is a mistake to attempt to manage scientifically the professors of the liberal arts in our colleges and universities, because the force that keeps them at their work is not an external arrangement of educational trade-unionism, but something incalculable, an inward compelling, an urge, that scientific management will rob of its freedom and of its spiritual effectiveness.

He considers the college professor's work in three aspects: First, the classroom aspect. The average professor spends as much time in classroom and office as the average clerk in the employ of a corporation or the State. But actually his task can never be out of his mind; his pleasures, pastimes, exercise, travel, reading,—everything,—must go to replenish his mental reservoirs and his power to inspire, for the outpouring in the lecture and the recitation periods. The best way to promote his welfare and the welfare of those he serves is to give him liberty to follow his own bent.

Also it should not be forgotten by efficiency experts, that "the college professor and his work represent an all-important principle in scientific management. Congeniality of task is the great factor of industrial economy."

It would be a sorry event for liberal education—and for technical education too—if the principles of scientific management were really applied; if the professor's preparation were formally prescribed, if hours were fixed and tasks made absolutely definite, if promotions and salaries were determined as in the business world, and all the worldly ways of inspection, stimulation, and compulsion were introduced. There is already too much talk of this—too much talk of "units" of the "instructional force" and the "educational plant," of "efficiency" and "output," of "investment" and "returns."

The second aspect in which the college professor is freely criticised is that in which he appears in large and wealthy institutions where he appears to have a modicum of leisure and a minimum of labor. The public is astounded and scandalized to discover that some professors have only six teaching hours a week. And yet, writes Professor Showerman, the explanation is so easy. The

university professor has many administrative duties; he has the oversight of instructors and the expenditure of large sums for books and apparatus; he is a supervisor of the working machinery of a part of his instruction as well as a teacher.

The third aspect is the consideration of the college professor as an interpreter:

He receives, transforms, and transmits. If he is a professor of science, he interprets the world of nature. If he is a professor of art, he interprets the ideals of beauty. Without his services, art and science would be to the general run of mankind "a mere arrangement of colors, or a rough footway where they may well break their shins"—to use a phrase from Stevenson.

And the professor of liberal arts is not an interpreter only. He is an apostle. There is an intellectual life, as there is a spiritual, to enter which ye must be born again. The professor is the priest of life. . . . Outwardly he is concerned with concrete instruction; in reality he is much more concerned with the quickening of the mind. If at any time inspiration fails him . . . the tongues of men and angels cannot make up for it.

Add to interpretation, dissemination, and inspiration, the duty of discovery. The college professor's function includes not only the increase of knowledge in the individual and the elevation of the intellectual standard in the world at large, but the actual advancement of learning. College and professor alike are not for their own campus alone, but for society at large.

All this is concerned with the active side of the liberal-arts professor, in his contribution to society as teacher and scholar. Further than this, there is his contribution of what Professor Showerman calls "Being."

The college professor must be clean-lipped and clean-hearted, honest and honorable. In what calling except the ministry does a single instance of scandal involve immediate dismissal? He must be an example of professional and civic generosity, an example of the workman in love with his work—an example of courtesy of manners and courtesy of mind. His is the one class in America that knows the languages of other peoples and enters into their souls. As a consequence his voice is always for brotherhood and peace.

To apply the dogmas of efficiency to the college professor would be like applying a brake to the forces of idealism. If you compel him to be "doing more," you "compel his being less"; the more "talk of efficiency, the less of service"; therefore the application of scientific management to the liberal arts,— "or to any other teaching,—is the most unintelligent of self-contradictions."



From the *Architectural Record*.

GILMAN HALL, THE NEW ACADEMIC BUILDING OF THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY AT BALTIMORE.

THE NEW HOME OF THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

AT the installation of President Goodnow, of the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore, in May last, many graduates and friends of the institution saw for the first time the beginnings of the group of university buildings at Homewood that will, in future years, house the university. Five of the units of the projected university group, including Gilman Hall, the principal building, have been completed. The university expects to be in operation at Homewood in the fall of the current year. In the May number of the *Architectural Record* (New York), Mr. John Martin Hammond suggests in outline some of the architectural problems related to the development of the new site and shows how these have been met.

At the present the university is in the business center of Baltimore. The new site is about two miles due north of the old, within the city limits, and consists of 150 acres of beautiful rolling land, containing many fine forest trees. The old Carroll mansion, an excellent specimen of the Georgian period, was standing on a portion of the estate when

the university authorities acquired it. The design of this building, which had itself been known as Homewood, was adopted by the university architects as the structural motif of the university's own building plans, and may be seen developed to-day in the academic building, Gilman Hall, which was dedicated on the occasion of President Goodnow's inauguration. The advantages of the Georgian for a university group of buildings, as conceived by the university authorities and advisory architects, are summed up as follows:

It is beautiful, it is dignified and restful; it lends itself well to combination with other buildings of the same character; it gives square rooms and no loss of floor space; it provides for ventilation and lighting; and, last of all, it is cheap and durable from the standpoint of construction.

The proportions and decoration of Homewood,—the building,—were carefully studied and preserved as far as possible in the plans of the new buildings, the proportion of window space to floor space only being changed so as to give ample light. The windows of the new buildings of Hopkins bear a constant relation to the floor space of one to six. So carefully have the interesting exterior features of Homewood,—the building,—

been preserved that the main entrance of Gilman Hall, the principal building of the group, is an enlarged version drawn to scale of the portico and entrance to the old home.

The farther requirements of the university

as to buildings are to be met in accordance with a carefully developed plan. The Engineering Building, of similar architecture, was also dedicated in connection with President Goodnow's inauguration in May.

THE LITTLE COUNTRY THEATER

IN the JUNE REVIEW an article in this department called attention to the progress of the non-commercial drama in New York. A movement of similar possibilities, springing, however, from social rather than artistic demands, has already made some headway in the Middle West. One of the fundamental needs of the people in such a State as North Dakota, where seventy-two per cent of the population live in unincorporated territory and an equivalent proportion are either foreign-born or of foreign descent, is clearly set forth in the second number of the *Immigrants in America Review*, by Alfred G. Arvold.

In most respects, says this writer, North Dakota is not unlike other States. People there are actually hungry for social recreation. Social stagnancy is a characteristic trait of the small town and the country. The problem is to help the inhabitants of the small towns and the country to find their true expression in the community. Mr. Arvold wisely holds, however, that, while the impulse to this social invasion of the country may come from without, the country people themselves must work out their own civilization.

The idea of the Little Country Theater, as conceived at the North Dakota Agricultural College at Fargo, seems to have met one of the crying social needs of its community. This is Mr. Arvold's description of the playhouse utilized to embody the Little Country Theater idea at Fargo:

In appearance it is most fascinating. It is a large playhouse put under a reducing glass. It is just the size of an average country town hall. It has a seating capacity of two hundred. The stage is thirty feet in width, twenty feet in depth, having a proscenium opening of ten feet in height and fifteen feet in width. There are no boxes and balconies. The decorations are plain and simple. The color scheme is green and gold, the gold predominating. The eight large windows are hung with tasteful green draperies. The curtain is a tree-shade velour. The birch-stained seats are broad and not crowded together. There is a place for a moving-picture machine. The scenery is simple and painted in plain colors. Anybody in a country town can make a set like it. It has the Belasco realism about it. The doors are wooden

doors, the windows have real glass in them. Simplicity is the keynote of the theater. It is an example of what can be done with hundreds of village halls, unused portions of schoolhouses, and the basements of country churches in communities. One of the unique features in connection with The Little Country Theater is the Coffee Tower. It is just to the right of the lower end of the stage. It, too, is plain and simple. Its function is purely social. After a play or program has been presented the friends of the Thespians are cordially invited to the Coffee Tower and served with cakes and coffee. Everything possible is done to encourage and cement the bonds of friendship.

All over the State the people of the farming communities are encouraged to produce such plays as can be easily staged in a country school, the basement of a country church, the sitting-room of a farm home, the village or town hall, or any place where people assemble for social betterment. The principal function of the Little Country Theater is to stimulate an interest for good, clean drama among the people living in the open country and villages, and thus to make the drama as a sociological force in getting people together.

Mr. Arvold mentions one group of young people from various sections of the State representing five different nationalities,—Scotch, Irish, English, Norwegian, and Swedish. He successfully staged "The Fatal Message," a one-act comedy by John Kendrick Bangs. Another cast of characters from the country presented "Cherry Tree Farm," an English comedy, in a most acceptable manner. In order to depict Russian life a dramatic club at the Agricultural College gave "A Russian Honeymoon." A tableau entitled "A Farm Home Scene in Iceland Thirty Years Ago" was staged by twenty young men and women of Icelandic descent, whose homes are in the country districts of North Dakota. The effect of this tableau was to incite other young people of foreign descent to present scenes depicting the national life of their fathers and mothers.

In North Dakota at present from 1500 to 2000 people are taking part in home-talent plays, due primarily to the influence of the Little Country Theater.



From the *Scientific American*.

CELILLO CANAL, OREGON, CROSSING THE SAND BELT, IS LINED WITH CONCRETE REINFORCED BY STEEL

IDAHO'S WATER ROUTE TO THE SEA

THE largest lock canal in the West, recently completed by the Federal Government on the Oregon side of the Columbia River just above the Dalles, makes that river navigable continuously for 500 miles from the Pacific Ocean. This Celilo Canal, as it

is known, eight and one-half miles in length, and constructed at a cost of about \$5,000,000, is described by Fred W. Vincent in the *Scientific American* for May 22.

The construction work began in 1906 and went on with little interruption until the canal was finally opened to traffic on May 5 of this year. Vessels of the river stern-wheel type can now navigate from

the Pacific Ocean to Lewiston, Idaho, the head of navigation on the Snake River.

For about five miles of its length the canal had to be cut through solid rock, and

in some cases it was necessary to make cuts seventy feet deep. The Columbia has a drop of ninety feet in eight miles where it passes through the Cascade Range.

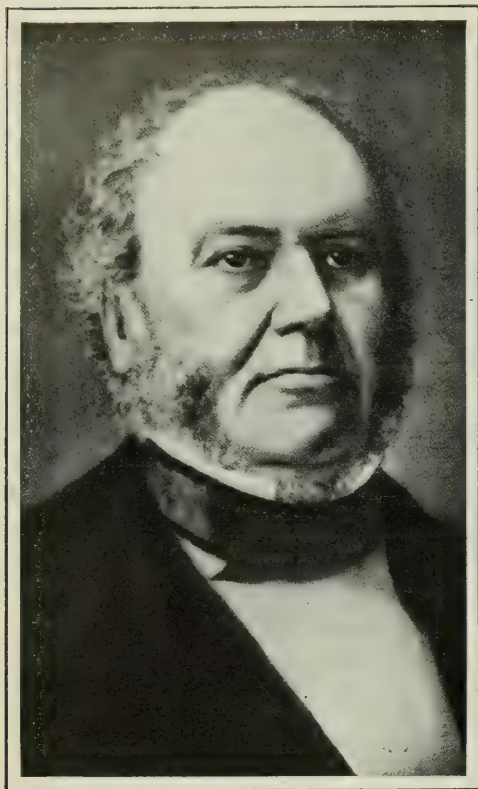
After a series of falls and rapids it is compelled to traverse a channel only 165 feet wide for three miles, while its normal width is almost a mile. Through this narrow crack the boiling current is 200 feet deep. Both shores are made up of lava, a solidified stream that in centuries past flowed across the wide valley and dammed the mighty river. When the engineers surveyed the site they found what was not rock was shifting sand. The rock question was merely a matter of dynamite and the sand and gravel question was settled by lining the canal with concrete reinforced by heavy steel.



SEVENTY-FOOT CUT THROUGH SOLID LAVA

The minimum depth of water is eight feet and the ordinary width of the canal is forty-five feet. Each of the five locks is 300 feet in length.

FIVE PAN-AMERICAN BUILDERS



WILLIAM WHEELWRIGHT, STEAMSHIP AND RAILROAD PROMOTER IN SOUTH AMERICA

THE May number of the *Pan-American Bulletin* (Washington, D. C.) sketches the careers of five natives of the United States, who, in their day, built up important business interests in Central and South America. This list of Pan-American builders is headed by the name of William Wheelwright, the Massachusetts shipmaster, who, after having been wrecked in the waters of the La Plata River, migrated from Argentina to Chile, and, in the course of years, took an active part in commercial development along the west coast of South America.

Failing to interest capital in the United States, Captain Wheelwright went to England and organized a million-dollar corporation, known as the Pacific Steamship Navigation Company, which built two steamships, the *Chile* and the *Peru*, the first steam-propelled vessels to navigate the waters of the South American west coast. That was in 1840, and Captain Wheelwright next turned his attention to railroad-building. It was he who gave to South America its first fifty

miles of railway,—from the Chilean port of Caldera to mines in the Andes at Copiao. Later he built 246 miles of railway in Argentina from Rosario to Cordova. This road was opened in 1870, and Captain Wheelwright's next venture was the construction of a line from Buenos Aires to La Plata,—this road being completed just fifty years from the date when Wheelwright and his companions had been wrecked near the spot where the road terminates.

In 1854 Henry Meiggs, who had been a man of wealth in California, became a bankrupt and sailed to Australia and later to Chile. He there raised capital, and in 1861 took charge of the building of a railway from Valparaiso to Santiago, a distance of ninety miles. The engineering feats required in the building of this road are even to-day regarded as marvels of skill in railroad construction. Transferring his activities from Chile to Peru, Meiggs became the leading spirit in building a railroad to the Amazon region. Before his death in 1877 this road had been built for eighty-seven of the 136 miles from Callao to Oroya. The building of this mountain road is still regarded as one of the remarkable engineering feats of all time. Its highest point is 15,645 feet above sea level. Before his death Meiggs had paid off the indebtedness contracted in San Francisco twenty years before.



HENRY MEIGGS, RAILROAD BUILDER IN PERU AND CHILE



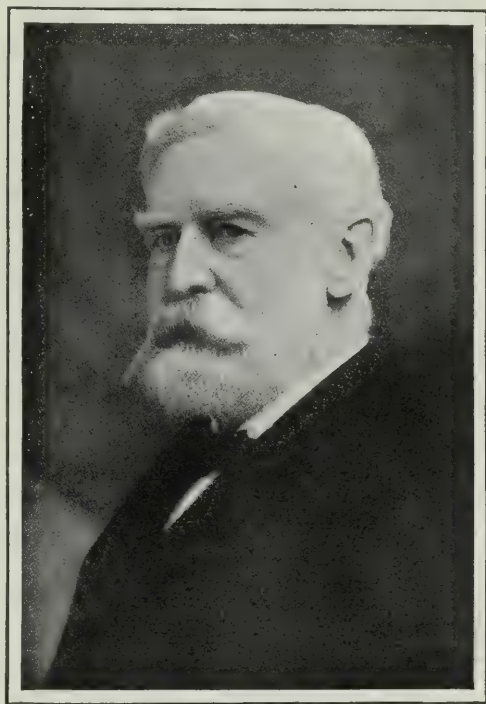
WILLIAM R. GRACE

The well-known New York merchant, William H. Aspinwall, was one of six North American financiers to furnish capital for building the much-needed railroad of forty-seven miles across the Isthmus of Panama, at the time of the California gold discoveries. Mr. Aspinwall was also active in organizing the Pacific Mail Steamship line, and these two enterprises were vitally important in

WILLIAM H. ASPINWALL, THE PANAMA RAILROAD
PROMOTER

the peopling of the Pacific Coast and the development of the State of California.

Colonel George E. Church, the engineer, spent ten years, after the close of our Civil War, in visiting practically all the countries of South America, stopping at Uruguay long enough to start several important engineering works. The railroad around the falls of the Madeira, which was completed as recently as September, 1912, was a conception of Colonel Church, and he was later engaged in railroad-building in Costa Rica. He was the author of several works based on his explorations in the jungle.



COL. GEORGE E. CHURCH

It is said that William R. Grace, of New York City, probably did more in his lifetime than any other North American individual to develop commerce between the countries of the Americas. He established lines of sailing vessels and steamships which are engaged in exchanging the raw products of South America for the manufactured goods of the United States. The Grace establishments or agencies are found in the leading business centers of the South American west coast, as well as in the cities of the United States, while Grace's steamships are known in all the ports of the Americas, Atlantic and Pacific.

TWO CLEVER LATIN-AMERICAN ILLUSTRATORS



"THE PROCESSION," BY THE MEXICAN ARTIST, MONTENEGRO

in a recent number of *Emporium*, writes of them thus:

Both have executed and exhibited various pictures not without value for a certain agreeable chromatic quality: the former, portraits and decorative panels; the second, portraits and landscapes. I consider that the work of the 29-year-old artist is much better, displaying more elegance of personality, a maturer conception, and greater security in methods of esthetic development, than that of the twenty-year-old Lopez-Naguil, rather crudely and caustically malicious, and not yet free from the ignorance and uncertainty more than natural in a beginner. . . .

The talents of Montenegro were evinced very early, and he spent three years studying in Paris, on a pension supplied by the government of his country. His skill was further developed in the two years 1913 and 1914, during which, on his return from Mexico, he wandered from Spain to France and from France to Italy. His work was promptly acclaimed by critics and connoisseurs as having interest and charm, as is attested by the fact that some of his paintings and studies in black and white were accepted and hung at the Salon National des Beaux-Arts, the Salon d'Automne, and the Salon des

WE are not accustomed to look for new artists to Central and South America. The names Mexico and the Argentine connote ideas very different from those connected with the brilliant palette and the clever pencil.

It is particularly piquant, therefore, to pick up a prominent Italian magazine of art and find under the title, "Two Young American Illustrators," an article warmly praising the work of Robert Montenegro, of Mexico, and Lopez-Naguil, of the Argentine. The former was born in Guadalajara, in 1885; the latter in Buenos Aires, some twenty-one years ago. Both studied in Europe, and it was there that they formed a very affectionate and fraternal friendship. Both are obviously much attracted by and influenced by Spanish traditions in letters and in art. Both display a strong feeling for the decorative and for elaborate and even intricate detail, but the work of Montenegro is naturally far more finished and mature than that of his very youthful friend from the far south.

The well-known art critic, Vittorio Pica,



PORTRAIT OF THE MARCHESA LUISA CASATI-STAMPA, BY MONTENEGRO

Humoristes in Paris, at the exhibit of the Fine Art Society of London, and at the international exposition of drawings and etchings at Faenza.

He also published an album in Paris whose preface bore no less a signature than that of the "clever and delightful poet and novelist," Henri de Regnier. Another album, executed in honor of the famous Russian dancer Nijinski, was published by the London house of Beaumont. The delightful pictures accompanying the article in *Emporium* were done at Venice last summer. We publish two. In the one called "The Procession," all the fragrance of Spain breathes from the comb, the mantilla, the rose, and the fan of the high-born *doña* in the foreground, whose air is so subtly compounded of the demurely modest and the delicately supercilious, with a dash of challenging coquetry. The composition is admirable, and the sombre figures of the black-cowled monks clutching tall white candles form an effective contrast to the principal figure.

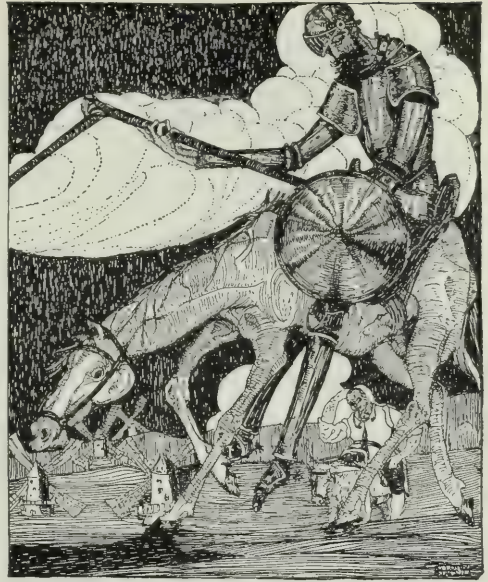
The second illustration is a portrait of the well-known Marchesa Luisa Casati-Stampa, portrayed in Persian costume. The striking personality of the sitter, the gorgeousness of her attire, and the sumptuous richness of the accessories give the artist admirable opportunity for the exercise of his peculiar gifts. Of this the critic speaks as follows:

He has so well succeeded in uniting the effectively expressive and the elegantly decorative in a recent portrait of the Marchesa Luisa Casati-Stampa, dressed in a rich Persian costume, that is worthy of the honor of being placed beside the other glorious images which have been made on canvas, on paper, or in wax by Boldini and Bakst, Martini and Troubetzkoy, of the alert and supple figure, the refined, aristocratic grace, of this intellectual Lombard gentlewoman.

Mr. Pica remarks further that in all of Montenegro's illustrations a literary influence is revealed. The artists who have most influenced him are Goya and Beardsley, so widely separated in country and era. While youth, beauty, and joy chiefly inspire his facile pencil, he has moods in which he delights in depicting the tragic, the dreadful, and the *macabre*. Thus he seems to revel in his illustrations of Oscar Wilde's "Salomé," and portrays St. Sebastian with gusto. He is also attracted toward symbolism, as in his figure of *Chastity*. Undoubtedly his future career will be well worth watching.

* * *

The work of Gregorio Lopez-Naguil



DON QUIXOTE, AS REPRESENTED BY THE ARGENTINE PAINTER, GREGORIO LOPEZ-NAGUIL

shows as yet, perhaps, less of achievement than of promise. But of the latter there is so much that he received the compliment of being asked to exhibit at the Pan-American Exposition in California. Born of a Spanish father and a French mother, he was sent to Barcelona "where, for two years, he studied under the intelligent and affectionate guidance of the Catalan painter, Francisco Galli." He was much impressed, during a trip through the northern part of Spain, by the fine mountain scenery and the picturesque costumes of the natives, and the experience inspired his first four landscapes. He then went to Paris to stay for some years, later visiting the Balearic Isles and Northern Italy. His exhibited work includes three portraits of women shown in Paris, in 1913, at the Autumn Salon, and three marines of Majorca at the annual exhibitions of Buenos Aires, in 1913 and 1914.

All are the somewhat faulty and uncertain works of a beginner, but full of talent and of promise for his artistic future . . . but were censured with acrimony by the omnipotent journalistic critics, who fortunately, however, did not succeed in depriving him of the honor,—a brilliant one for a youth of twenty,—of being invited to participate in the great international exposition at San Francisco.

His most striking illustrations are those of Don Quixote, done *con amore*, during several months spent in Venice with his friend Montenegro.

THE NEW BOOKS

STUDIES OF VARIOUS PEOPLES

FEW Frenchmen have shown as great interest in the current social and political problems of America as the Baron D'Estournelles de Constant. He has in recent years traveled much, observed keenly, and made notes industriously and with rare sympathy. His book was finished for French readers just before the war began last year, and it now appears in an English translation, revised since the outbreak of the war.¹ It is all the better for not being systematic, but made up rather of notes, jottings, and reflections. The first chapter takes the reader from New York, by way of Washington, to Texas and the Mexican border. The second deals with our Mexican relations, the third with California, the fourth with women in the United States apropos of some Western experiences. Then come chapters that range back from Seattle to Salt Lake City and Colorado, that discuss the Japanese question, that deal with the cities and States of the Mississippi Valley,—all these chapters being delightfully lacking in form, and full of allusions,—personal, local, and historical. So ends the first part of the book. The second part deals with the problems of the country, one chapter on "the idealistic movement" having much to do with education, philanthropy, and the care of children, while the final chapter, on "America's Duty," is sharply critical of all tendencies towards any increase of the American navy or of imperialistic ambition. When this distinguished Frenchman tells us what he feels about American life, he is well worth while. When he discusses our governmental policies, he is also worth reading, but he takes strong sides in controverted matters without seeming in all cases to be perfectly informed. Of many books recently written by foreigners about the United States, this must rank with the very foremost in importance.

Two little books about Belgium have recently come from the press,—Mr. R. C. K. Ensor's volume in the Home University Library,² which characterizes both land and people, and gives, at the same time, the essential facts of Belgian history, politics, and parties, and "The Belgians at Home,"³ by Clive Holland, which is an abridgment of a larger work with the same title which appeared four years ago. This latter volume is more concerned with the modern nation, giving only so much historical allusion as is necessary for an intelligent description of Belgium's ancient and modern life. Both are obviously much influenced by Spanish tradition in art. Both display a strong feeling for the decorative and for elaborate and intricate detail, but the work of Ensor is naturally far more finished than that of his very youthful rival, Clive Holland. Macmillan.

The well-known art critic, Vitto Lane. 271

in its title-page quotation from Mr. W. T. Stead: "Russia is a real country, governed by real people with a real desire for progress." The information thus acquired at first hand by Mr. Hubback antedated the outbreak of the war and for that reason is, perhaps, the more valuable, since it embodies more accurately the spirit of the nation in its natural and undisturbed progress.

Another useful contribution to our knowledge of the Czar's domain is Dr. Leo Wiener's "Interpretation of the Russian People,"⁴—a book written for the direct purpose of picturing for the American and English reader those characteristics of modern Russia which, in the author's opinion, are most important and essential to an understanding of national ideals. Dr. Wiener is professor of Slavic languages and literatures at Harvard, and his studies are serious and valuable.

"The Human German,"⁵ by Edward Edgeworth, is a book that meets perhaps a more real need at the present moment than ever before in our history, since it brings to the foreground some of those admirable traits of the German people that were in grave danger of being obscured or lost sight of in the battle-smoke that hovers over sea and land. The book is made of light sketches of life in Berlin as it went on before the war. Everything that made life in the German capital interesting to the foreigner is picturesquely set forth. It is a good natural commentary on the human ties that bind together all ranks of German society.

"Jewish Life in Modern Times,"⁶ by Israel Cohen, and "The Conquering Jew,"⁷ by John Foster Fraser, both undertake to sum up tersely the economic and social life of the Hebrew race to-day in all civilized lands. Mr. Cohen's book is the more elaborate and detailed of the two, but Mr. Fraser is quite as sweeping in his conclusions, for he, as well as the Jewish author, is convinced that "in all the history of his race the Jew never occupied as commanding a position as he does to-day."

Dr. Charles A. Eastman's little book, "The Indian To-Day,"⁸ is a much-needed presentation of the so-called Indian problem from the Red Man's own view-point. Dr. Eastman is the son of a full-blooded Sioux and was born in a tepee near Redwood Falls, Minn., in 1858. The story of his rearing and education has been many times

¹ An Interpretation of the Russian People. By Leo Wiener. McBride, Nast. 248 pp. \$1.25.

² The Human German. By Edward Edgeworth. Dutton. 290 pp. \$3.

³ Jewish Life in Modern Times. By Israel Cohen. Dodd, Mead. 374 pp., ill. \$3.

⁴ The Conquering Jew. By John Foster Fraser. Funk & Wagnalls. 304 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ The Indian To-Day. By Charles A. Eastman. Doubleday, Page. 185 pp. 60 cents.

⁶ Paul H. B.

⁷ 545 pp., \$2.

⁸ 56 pp. 50 cents.

⁹ Holland. Macmil-

told and need not be repeated in this connection, but the important point is that Dr. Eastman, who is to-day one of the foremost representative Indians, knows from personal experience the difficulties against which his race has had to struggle. His discussion of the present and future of the Indian is most interesting.

A little book of travel notes by G. Lowes Dickinson, entitled "Appearances,"¹ touches on India,

China, Japan, and America. All these essays are readable and suggestive, and have already appeared either in the *Manchester Guardian*, of England, or in the *English Review*. Mr. Dickinson will be recalled as the author of "Letters of a Chinese Official," which, several years ago, created something of a sensation in this country. The present chapters on America are not likely to make so profound an impression, although they are at least stimulating.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

NO writer of to-day knows his California more thoroughly or to better purpose than does Edwin Markham, the poet. Although a native of Oregon, Mr. Markham went to California with his parents as a five-year-old boy and literally grew up with the State. It was his fortune to know personally many of the leaders in the formative period of the Pacific Coast, and his interest in the development of the community has not lessened with the advancing years. Of the various books concerning the Coast that have been published during the current season, Mr. Markham's "California the Wonderful"² is the most comprehensive and attractive, treating, as it does, not only of the romantic history of the State, the picturesque features of her people, the scenic glories of her mountains, and other aspects of the subject that would naturally appeal to a man of Mr. Markham's temperament and vision, but also of the more prosaic side of the State's development—her mineral and horticultural resources, the growth of her great cities, and other phases of her political and economic history.

"The Beauties of the State of Washington"³ is the title of a pamphlet for tourists compiled and published by the State Bureau of Statistics and Immigration, under the direction of Harry F. Giles, Deputy Commissioner. Excellent representative views of mountain scenery and other natural features of the State are presented and the book is accompanied by a new map of Washington showing all the State highways and principal county roads.

Mr. Edward Hutton's volume on "Naples and Southern Italy,"⁴ while less closely related to war scenes than some other books of the month, has a timely interest of its own in view of the participation of Italy in the great conflict, and the possibility that war's ravages may extend even to some of the regions described in this tranquil volume. Tourists will find in Mr. Hutton's chapters thoroughgoing descriptions of many important landscape features.

Those of us who cannot become quite reconciled to the title of Dr. Aughinbaugh's book,—"Selling Latin America,"—will at least recognize the timeliness and value of the material that the author has put between the covers of his vol-

ume,⁵ for he is dealing with one of the great industrial problems of our time,—the problem of what the United States is to sell to the Latin-American countries to the south of us and how it is to be sold. Very little definite or authoritative instruction on these topics has heretofore been put in print, but here we have the results of eighteen years of practical experience acquired by Dr. Aughinbaugh in selling goods in these very countries, countries which, the publishers tell us, Dr. Aughinbaugh knows "as well as you know your own town." It is worth the American exporter's while to read what can be said on these lines by a man who "knows the people, their habits, their characteristics, and their commercial practises."

Another book, by an American, of intimate personal experience with Latin Americans is "The Young Man's Chances in South and Central America,"⁶ by William A. Reid. This also is a thoroughly practical volume having to do with specific opportunities for young men in various professions, industries, and commercial undertakings. The foreword is supplied by Director-General Barrett, of the Pan-American Union, and a prefatory note by the Managing Director of the Southern Commercial Congress, under whose auspices the book is published.

Farther afield are two books on Africa that have appeared during the spring months,—*"The Rediscovered Country,"*⁷ by Stewart Edward White, and *"Through Central Africa,"*⁸ by James Barnes. The former volume is virtually Mr. White's diary of his hunting trip through what he describes as the last virgin hunting-ground in the inhabited part of the world,—*"a field teeming with game, which is as large as that of British East Africa and nearly as accessible and which has never known the sound of a gun."* Mr. White has not only a hunting story to tell, but a narrative of exploration and adventure that is of general interest. Mr. Barnes struck directly across Africa from coast to coast through the Belgian Congo and "on Stanley's trail." His book is copiously illustrated from photographs made by Cherry Kearton.

¹ *Appearances*. By G. Lowes Dickinson. Doubleday, Page. 221 pp., ill. \$1.

² *California the Wonderful*. By Edwin Markham. New York: Hearst's International Library Company. 400 pp., ill. \$2.50.

³ *The Beauties of the State of Washington*. By Harry F. Giles. Bureau of Statistics and Immigration. 112 pp., ill.

⁴ *Naples and Southern Italy*. By Edward Hutton. Macmillan. 312 pp., ill. \$3.

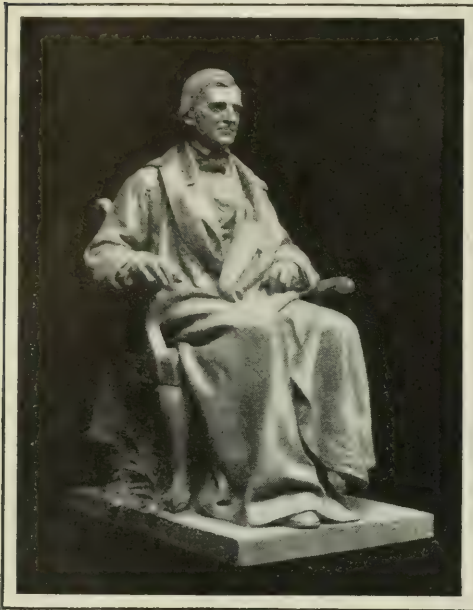
⁵ *Selling Latin America*. By W. E. Aughinbaugh. Small, Maynard. 408 pp., ill. \$2.

⁶ *The Young Man's Chances in South and Central America*. By William A. Reid. Washington, D. C.: Southern Commercial Congress. 173 pp.

⁷ *The Rediscovered Country*. By Stewart Edward White. Doubleday, Page. 358 pp., ill. \$2.

⁸ *Through Central Africa*. By James Barnes. Appleton's. 283 pp., ill. \$4.

PHILOSOPHY, PAST AND PRESENT



STATUE OF EMERSON, BY DANIEL C. FRENCH

PROFESSOR OSCAR FIRKINS has retold the life of Emerson, with the addition of material drawn from the Emerson Journals.¹ As no record of Emerson's life could be comprehensive without the use of these intimate jottings that cover the years between 1820 and 1872, Professor Firkins' work is the most valuable to the student of all the biographies of the Sage of Concord. He interprets and reappraises the Emersonian philosophy and shows us it is not outworn. "Where but in Emerson," he asks, "can we find a reverence for the solitary vision which exceeds that of the ascetic or devotee, united with an esteem for the varied palpable, objective fact, which the investigator of the commercialist might recognize as adequate?" He enumerates the conditions under which Emerson considered the maximum of happiness possible. They will apply to any and every age:—"humility, early stoicism, fortitude, release from selfish ambition, eager curiosity, intellectual activity, preoccupation with the inward life," and "concentration in the present as the type of the eternal."

The publication of Dr. Hermann Turck's study, "The Man of Genius,"² translated from the sixth German edition by the late Professor Tamson, brings to the English-reading public a brilliant and notable book that embodies the highest conceptions of German idealism. Every page is alive with enthusiasm for humanity's long march toward righteousness, and with love for that which is true and eternal. Dr. Turck cannot find true genius revealed in any personality whose aim has been to destroy rather than to build. Certain inspiring and illuminating chapters delineate Shakespeare's

conception of the nature of genius in Hamlet; Goethe's self-representation in Faust; and the awakening to mental freedom through Christ and Buddha. He classifies Stirner, Ibsen, and Nietzsche under the caption, "The Antisophy of Egoism"; and his estimate of Nietzsche is that he utterly failed to discern either moral, scientific, or esthetic truth. The will of the man of genius is defined after the Aristotelian concept of ethics; it finds activity only in that which must be for the good of all, and "it extends into the region of the unconditioned, the absolute, and the perfect; it strives after the realization of the highest ideal, and therefore feels more strongly the barriers of all that is finite, imperfect, and conditioned."

The chapter on "Habit"³ from William James' classic two-volume "Psychology" has been printed separately in response to public demand. It is a practical, helpful suggestion as to how to make the definite routine of our lives upbuild the structure of our character and minister to our highest ideals.

Clara Endicott Sears has gathered together all the articles that have appeared from time to time regarding that quaintly interesting and pathetic communistic experiment of the Transcendentalists at Fruitlands.⁴ The exact spot chosen by these unworlly enthusiasts was the old Wyman Farm, two miles from the village of Harvard in Massachusetts. Some of the original members of the community were: Bronson Alcott, his wife, and the four Alcott girls; Isaac T. Hecker, of New York; Samuel Larned, of Providence; Anna Page, and Joseph Palmer. Their daily life was modelled upon ideals of Spartan simplicity. No butter, milk, cocoa, tea, coffee, eggs, or meat were permitted to corrupt their daily fare of fruit, grains, vegetables, and pure water. Some of the members adopted a uniform of linen tunics, and each worked as he saw fit and at the task which he preferred. All the members met together at certain hours of the day for spiritual stimulus and intellectual discussion.

The rigors of one New England winter were sufficient to destroy this adventure in perfection. Some of the members went to Brook Farm or joined the Shakers; others wept painfully back into the inharmony of life among the unenlightened masses. There are great failures; Fruitlands was one of them. But the germ nourished in that old farmhouse has infiltrated the foundations of our national existence. The reader of this book will find only tenderness in his heart for the frustrate enthusiasts of Fruitlands. They were right, and their contemnners were wrong. But neither the one nor the other perhaps perceived the plane upon which their ideals must irrevocably function,—that of mind and spirit, not that of stubborn and unyielding physical matter.

"The Religion of the Spirit in Modern Life,"⁵ by Horatio H. Dresser, presents a philosophical discussion of spiritual matters and endeavors to determine the efficiency of various types of religion and interpret the Divine Presence in universal terms.

¹ Habit. By William James. Holt. 68 pp. 50 cents.

² The Man of Genius. By Hermann Turck. London. A. & C. Black. 483 pp. \$4.

³ Habit. By William James. Holt. 68 pp. 50 cents.

⁴ Fruitlands. By Clara Endicott Sears. Houghton Mifflin. 185 pp., ill. \$1.

⁵ The Religion of the Spirit in Modern Life. By Horatio H. Dresser. Putnams. 311 pp. \$1.50.

¹ Ralph Waldo Emerson. By Oscar Firkins. Houghton Mifflin. 379 pp. \$1.75.



"FRUITLANDS," THE HOME OF THE ALCOTT TRANSCENDENTALISTS (SEE OPPOSITE PAGE)

AMERICAN HISTORY

LAST month editorial allusion was made to a remarkable parallel between the problems of American diplomacy in the Napoleonic period and those of the present world war. Those who would understand American international conditions in the earlier period will find it well worth while to read "The Diplomacy of the War of 1812," by Prof. Frank A. Updyke, of Dartmouth College. The volume consists of the "Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History," for the year 1914, at the Johns Hopkins University. Topics dealt with include impressment, neutral trade, war and peace proposals, the negotiations at Ghent, the Indian question and the Canadian boundary, the execution of the Ghent treaty, and the later settlement of controverted questions not included in the Treaty of Ghent. This volume, like a number of its predecessors in the same series, is of striking merit as a contribution to American diplomatic history. A careful index adds much to the value of the book, as is readily shown by a reference to such topics as blockades, boundary controversies, slave trade, and so on.

We shall take a further opportunity to present, with more fullness and detail, the recent developments in the broad task of writing and publishing the history of Iowa that has for some years been going forward at the hands of the State Historical Society. It has taken large wisdom to perceive the value of this work, and fine courage to execute a publishing scheme upon so great a scale. The Iowa State Historical Society has been singularly fortunate in having the services of Prof. Benjamin F. Shambaugh, of the State University, as the superintendent and editor of its literary projects.

The latest volumes are in the field of institu-

tional history. Thus, in two volumes Mr. Clarence Ray Aurner has presented the history of education in Iowa.² He begins with the earliest period, and devotes himself especially to school laws and methods of public support and organization. His work has involved educational as well as historical inquiry and study, and deserves wide recognition as a contribution to the foremost subject of American social action.

Another volume has for its subject social legislation in Iowa, its author being John E. Briggs.³ It reviews the State's laws and codes from the standpoint of the growing interest in the care and management of particular social classes, such as delinquents and dependents, while also dealing with the State's action in matters relating to the public health, safety, morals, domestic relations, and labor. The subject of poor-relief legislation in Iowa has a volume to itself, the author being Dr. John L. Gillin, now of the State University of Wisconsin.⁴ This work has particular value, because it has been performed from the standpoint of a wide comparative knowledge of the subject.

A second volume appears in the series entitled "Applied History."⁵ This volume contains ten distinct monographs from the pens of several writers. These deal with such topics as home rule, direct legislation, equal suffrage, appointment and removal of public officials, and child labor. They serve the double purpose of presenting a part of the social history and progress of Iowa, and of contributing to current nation-wide subjects of progress and reform.

² History of Education in Iowa. By Clarence R. Aurner. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa. 2 vols., 905 pp. \$4.

³ Social Legislation in Iowa. By John E. Briggs. State Historical Society of Iowa. 444 pp. \$2.

⁴ Poor-Relief Legislation in Iowa. By John L. Gillin. State Historical Society of Iowa. 404 pp. \$2.

⁵ Applied History, Vol. II. State Historical Society of Iowa. 689 pp. \$3.

¹ The Diplomacy of the War of 1812. By Frank A. Updyke. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 494 pp., \$2.50.

MUSIC, ART, AND DRAMA

THE fresh vitality which has been infused latterly into the art of the theater in this country has brought with it a renewed interest in the fine old early English songs. Mr. Frank Hunter Potter has prepared a "Reliquary of English Song"¹ that contains the gems of English melodies from 1250 to 1700. The accompaniments are harmonized and arranged by Charles Vincent and T. Tertius Noble. The introduction and the informative notes are of great value to those who are interested in this type of song. Desdemona's song in "Othello"; "Love Will Find a Way,"—the words as given in Percy's "Reliques,"—"Barbara Allen," "Lilliburlero," and that song of perpetual delight, "Sally in our Alley," are included in this collection.

The Oliver Ditson Company publish in the Musician's Library² an "Anthology of German Piano Music," edited by Moritz Moszkowski, and "Sixty Folk Songs of France," arranged for medium voice, edited by Julien Tiersot. The songs are grouped according to their character and an English translation of the words accompanies the French text.

The opera "Carmen" is published with an English version by Charles Fonteyn Manney, and an excellent introductory essay on Bizet and the sources of "Carmen," by Philip Hale.

"Seven Songs from Out-of-Doors,"³ by Alberta Burton, are for children big and little.

A brilliantly written interpretative book on the modern movement in the theater,⁴ by Ludwig Lewisohn, professor in the Ohio State University, gives the reader a survey of the foundations of our new conceptions of drama, French realistic drama, the Naturalistic German plays, the renaissance of English drama, and the Neo-Romantic movement, which includes Maeterlinck and Rostand, Hauptmann, and Hofmannsthal. Yeats, Lady Gregory, and Synge represent the Irish movement. Sixty-two pages are devoted to study-lists and bibliography. The student and the dramatic reader will find this book indispensable.

Barrett Clark writes in the excellent interpretative introduction to his translation of Victorien Sardou's play, "Patrie,"⁵ that "Sardou is probably the oftenest referred to and the least read of any dramatist of modern times." This translation follows the original text "line for line." Sardou took Flanders for his background,—Flanders under the tyranny of the Spanish Duke of Alba. The Count de Rysoor, a Flemish nobleman and patriot, is plotting to free his country of the tyrant. Dolores, his Spanish wife, becomes involved in an intrigue, and in a fit of passion at her husband's discovery of her faithlessness she gives the Flemish patriots into the hands of the Duke to be burned for treason. Her lover escapes execution by her guilefulness, but in accordance

with his oath, he kills Dolores to avenge his beloved "Patrie." The description of Belgium under the Inquisition might almost be a picture of Belgium to-day,—"entire villages without a soul in them. Smoking ruins everywhere you look. Ruined walls . . . unspeakable horrors." "Patrie" was first performed on March 18, 1869, at the Porte St.-Martin Theater, in Paris. This edition of the play is included in the Drama League Series of Plays.

"The Continental Drama of To-Day,"⁶ by Barrett Clark, will please the student of dramatic literature. It interprets the plays of Ibsen, Björnson, Strindberg, Tolstoy, Gorky, Tchekoff, Andreyev, Hauptmann, Sudermann, Wedekind, Schnitzler, Hoffmannsthal, Becque, Maeterlinck, Rostand, Brieux, Hervieu, Gascosa, Dormay, Lemaitre, Laedun, D'Annunzio, Echegaray, and Galdos.

"Plays of the Pioneers,"⁷ by Constance D'Arcy Mackay, will meet the increasing public demand for pageant plays that are simple of structure, easily costumed, and capable of production with very little rehearsing. They include "The Fountain of Youth," a poetic presentation of Ponce de Leon in Florida; "The Vanishing Race," which presents an Indian scene; "The Passing of Hiawatha"; and "Dame Creel of Portland Town," which develops an incident of the Revolution. Full directions for costuming and for producing out-of-door pageants and plays are included in an appendix.

"The Unveiling,"⁸ a poetic drama by Jackson Boyd, gives us a dream that expresses life. Two students of philosophy obtain the statues of the gods Ormazd and Ahriman, and after the ceremony of unveiling, one of the students dreams that they call upon the gods to come to life and tell them the nature of truth. The miracle happens; the gods speak and the lives of the characters of the play work out their destinies under the high spiritual and philosophical guidance of the immortals. Mr. Boyd has produced a splendid reading play that offers in solution an evolutionary, idealistic philosophy, which teaches us to repose "perfect trust in Nature," whose moulding processes lead to eternal peace, truth, and perfection.

"The Studio Year Book of Decorative Art"⁹ gives us an unusually fine presentation of the recent developments in the artistic construction, decoration, and furnishing of the house. The department of domestic architecture is of especial timeliness. The chapters on house decoration impress one with the reposeful beauty of the new fittings and designs; and the cuts and color plates of English gardens are lessons in landscape gardening in themselves. A survey of this admirable summary of the year's progress will convince even the most sceptical of the splendid gains we are making in decorative art toward simplicity, fitness, and rhythmic beauty.

¹ Reliquary of English Song. By Frank Hunter Potter. G. Schirmer. 114 pp. \$1.25.

² Volumes of Musician's Library. Ditson. Paper. \$1.50.

³ Seven Songs from Out-of-Doors. By Alberta Burton. Ditson. \$1.

⁴ The Modern Drama. By Ludwig Lewisohn. Huebsch. 340 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ Patrie. By Victorien Sardou. Translated by Barrett Clark. Doubleday, Page, 203 pp. 75 cents.

⁶ The Continental Drama of To-Day. By Barrett Clark. Holt. 252 pp. \$1.

⁷ Plays of the Pioneers. By Constance D'Arcy Mackay. Harpers. 175 pp. \$1.

⁸ The Unveiling. By Jackson Boyd. Putnam. 255 pp. \$1.25.

⁹ The Studio Year Book of Decorative Art. Lane. 239 pp., ill. \$2.50.

ENGLISH LITERATURE,—ESSAYS AND NOVELS

"THE Poets Laureate of England,"¹ their history and their odes, by W. Forbes Gray, follows the lives of the fifteen Poets Laureate, beginning with Ben Jonson and ending with Alfred Austin. This record will prove valuable to all who are interested in English literary history. It is delightfully written and arranged with taste and understanding. Facsimiles of portraits of the various Laureates are used as illustrations.

"A History of English Literature,"² by Walter S. Hinchman, Master of English in Groton School, presents the facts of the history of English literature rather than the interpretation of it. The author has kept in mind the needs of the high-school pupil, and has given careful treatment to important figures. The book is beautifully printed and copiously illustrated in color and in black and white. The text is accompanied by maps, literary charts, and in appendix, literary forms, English verse, and general bibliography.

"The English Essay and Essayists"³ begins the history of the essay in the year 1597, when Bacon published the "first genuine English essays." The author, Hugh Walker, Professor of English in St. David's College, Lampeter, has given to this volume his deep scholarship, and chosen a fluent, easy style for the presentation of his material. The chapter on "Character Writers," the tribute to Hazlett, the deft analysis of Lamb, the searching study of the "Transition from the 18th Century," and the critical study of the "Historian-Essayists," are among the rich contributions of this scholarly book to the wide field of English literature. Five chapters are devoted to the Nineteenth Century and the "Essays of Yesterday," which brings us down to the Neo-Celtic Revival,—to men such as Kenneth Grahame, the late Richard Middleton, and John M. Synge.

"Modern Essays,"⁴ selected and edited by John M. Berdan, John R. Schultz, and Hewette E. Joyce, has been compiled to meet the need of a volume of literary illustrations to accompany the teaching of the principles of exposition. Frederic Harrison, Wu Ting-fang, G. K. Chesterton, ex-President Taft, Arnold Bennett, Jane Addams, Richard Burton, and John Galsworthy are names to be found in the list of the authors of this admirable collection. Short biographical accounts are given in the index.

One may search vainly through the pages of Richard Le Gallienne's new book of essays, "Vanishing Roads,"⁵ for the touch of the hand that wrote his earlier work. Only in "The Haunted Restaurant," does one find a partial reversion to his former method and discover, by contrast, how greatly his work has deepened and broadened, until it now confronts us with the authenticity of art achieved and of life realized. Not one whit

of style has been surrendered to power; the old delicate whimsicality toys with the winding thread of fate and saves our illusions. The title essay pictures all the vanishing highways of life, and, at the end, life itself, as the great road we must travel with "the running stream of Time for our fellow-wayfarer," until it, too, vanishes around the unknown corner where Death awaits us. Two of the essays are the fruit of Mr. Le Gallienne's re-visiting England after an absence of ten years. One of them records his impressions of "London,—Changing and Unchanged," the other, the delight the returned native finds in the English countryside. We are grateful for the appreciation "On Re-reading Walter Pater." Too many of us have sensed only the "beautiful garment" of Pater's style and failed to glimpse even faintly the spirit of fire and dreams upon which Pater draped his magic vestments. Another essay, "Imperishable Fiction," shows us worthy fiction as the result of imperturbable living,—the record of slow time. A study in contrasts, "The Bible and the Butterfly," closes a volume that will meet instant appreciation.

Canon Sheehan's powerful novel, "The Graves at Kilmorna,"⁶ a story of the Fenians, gives us a splendid chapter out of the history of Ireland's futile heroisms. It shows us that Irish patriotism must necessarily have always differed from other patriotism, in that it existed in the old days as conceived by a "people of flocks and herds," who were vitally concerned only with that which affected the land. With this view of Irish patriotism in mind, this poignant tale of the Fenian rebellion of 1867 lifts some misconceptions from the lives and deeds of those leaders who threw their lives away in a mad effort to wrest Ireland from England. Broadly speaking, Canon Sheehan's book is a preaching to the Ireland of to-day,—a warning to those who would build up Ireland under Home Rule, that "a nation is great or little according to the genius and the character of its people . . . that if people are sordid and base and have sacrificed that first essential of freedom, individual independence, no merely material success can compensate for such national apostasy."

"The Rat-Pit,"⁷ is the name of a novel by Patrick MacGill; the real "Rat-Pit" is a sordid lodging-house for women in Glasgow,—a mean last refuge for the female derelicts of a teeming city. To this cage of heterogeneous human misery, following divers paths of poverty and hardships, comes pretty Norah Ryan, a peasant girl from the rugged coast of Donegal. The great purity that dwells in the heart of Irish womanhood dignifies even the most evil necessities of Norah's life, and one turns the last page of her chronicle with the strong determination to go out in the highways and byways and make the world a better place for other "Norahs." The chapter that describes the journey of the Donegal women to get work is a fine piece of realism. Mr. MacGill is also the author of "Children of Dead End."

¹ The Poets Laureate of England. By W. Forbes Gray. Dutton. 315 pp. \$2.50.

² A History of English Literature. By W. S. Hinchman. Century. 455 pp. \$1.30.

³ The English Essay and Essayists. By Hugh Walker. Dutton. 343 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Modern Essays. Berdan-Schultz-Joyce. Macmillan. 448 pp. \$1.25.

⁵ Vanishing Roads. By Richard Le Gallienne. Putnam. 377 pp. \$1.50.

⁶ The Graves at Kilmorna. By Canon Sheehan. Longmans. 373 pp. \$1.35.

⁷ The Rat-Pit. By Patrick MacGill. Doran. 320 pp. \$1.25.

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Books Relating to the War

The Great War: The Second Phase. By Frank H. Simonds. Kennerley. 284 pp. \$1.25.

Mr. Simonds, whose story of the great war is appearing from month to month in this REVIEW and who has taken his place as the foremost American commentator on the military and geographical aspects of the great conflict, has just completed his account of the second phase of the war, from the fall of Antwerp to the second battle of Ypres. While the book traverses much of the same ground covered in the REVIEW articles, a great part of the material is presented in a different form. It should be remembered that the basis of all of Mr. Simonds' writing, unlike that of many journalists, is a remarkably sound and intimate knowledge of geography and history. If any American is entitled by right of years of study and research to be regarded as an authority on the European war it is Mr. Simonds.

With the German Armies in the West. By Sven Hedin. Lane. 402 pp., ill. \$3.50.

This translation of the well-known Swedish explorer's experiences on the German firing-line is the fullest account in English of the doings of the German armies in the West for the first six months of the war. Whatever may be said of Dr. Sven Hedin's anti-English opinions, his personal veracity is unquestioned and no one can doubt for a moment that in this extremely interesting volume he records the facts of the war as he saw them. Many of these facts have never before come to the eyes of English or American readers. He was specially commissioned by the Kaiser to visit and observe the German armies in Belgium and France, and he had exceptional opportunities for seeing what was going on.

Behind the Scenes in Warring Germany. By Edward Lyell Fox. McBride, Nast. 333 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Mr. Fox, who has been a special correspondent with the German armies and at Berlin, describes in this volume interesting war scenes on both fronts. One chapter is devoted to "the hero of all Germany, Field-Marshal von Hindenburg." There is also an interesting account of the work carried on by the American Red Cross on the Russian frontier.

A Month's German Newspapers. Selected and translated by A. L. Gowans. Stokes. 275 pp. \$1.

A selection of representative extracts from German newspapers of December, 1914, translated by Mr. Gowans with a view to giving English readers the viewpoint of "those who are at present our enemies." Among the topics covered by these newspaper extracts are the war session of the German Reichstag, the Scarborough raid, and the battle at Falkland Islands.

France in Danger. By Paul Vergnet. Dutton. 167 pp. \$1.

This is an English translation of a book that was first published in France in October, 1913. It

contains significant warnings to the French people concerning the menace of Pan-Germanism, and a rather remarkable forecast of the great conflict that developed in the following year.

The Last War: A Study of Things Present and Things to Come. By Frederick Lynch. Revell. 118 pp. 75 cents.

In the signs of the times, portentous as they are, Dr. Lynch reads a prophecy of international peace, believing that the church throughout the world must ultimately take the ground that "the nations must live under the same ethics that govern individual relationships."

America Fallen! The Sequel to the European War. By J. Bernard Walker. Dodd, Mead. 203 pp. 75 cents.

From the war now raging in Europe Mr. Walker, of the *Scientific American*, draws the moral of American unpreparedness, and in this little book he ingeniously works out the military and naval movements that might be reasonably assumed to result in the actual subjugation of the United States.

The Socialists and the War. By William English Walling. Holt. 512 pp. \$1.50.

The chief value of this volume lies in the documentary statements that it contains from Socialists of all countries, with special reference to their peace policy. There is a suggestive chapter at the close in which Mr. Walling discusses the revolutionary State Socialist measures already adopted by the belligerent governments. The volume, as a whole, is one of the first expressions in English of the real attitude of the European masses towards the war.

England or Germany—? By Frank Harris. New York: The Wilmarth Press. 187 pp. \$1.

In this little book Mr. Harris makes a comparison between England and Germany, as modern states, somewhat to the disadvantage of the former. Himself an American who has lived many years in England, Mr. Harris is convinced that England has fallen behind in the race as regards the chief elements of our modern civilization, while Germany, he contends, has done more for civilization in the last twenty years than any state has ever done before. He has included in his book a suggestive chapter on "The Censorship and Its Effects."

Problèmes de Politique et Finances de Guerre. By G. Jèze, J. Barthélemy, G. Rist, and L. Rolland. Paris: Felix Alcan. 227 pp. 3 fr. 50.

This book contains scientific studies of several phases of war finance made at first-hand in France and England within the past few months. American economists interested in the subject will find these studies valuable.

Bohemia Under Hapsburg Misrule. Edited by Thomas Capek. Revell. 187 pp. \$1.

This book gives expression to some of the ideals and aspirations of peoples who are hoping for

actual advancement as an outcome of the great war. The Bohemians even speak of having "a place in the sun," and look for the restoration of autonomy to their fatherland. The Slovaks, kinsmen of the Bohemians, numbering between two and three millions and inhabiting the northwestern provinces of Hungary, have kindred aspirations. All these are clearly set forth in this volume which Mr. Thomas Capek has edited, and to which Professors H. A. Miller, Will S. Monroe, Leo Wiener, Emily G. Balch, and Bohumil Simek contribute chapters.

Studies of the Great War. By Newell Dwight Hillis. Revell. 272 pp. \$1.20.

The pastor of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, N. Y., brings together in this volume his discussions of what each of the European powers has at stake in the present conflict, reviewing the growth, development, and industrial standing of each belligerent, and summarizing the aspirations and ideals of each.

Germany's Isolation. By Paul Rohrbach. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 186 pp. \$1.

Although the greater part of this book was written before the outbreak of the war, it states in practically complete form the German argument on the economic side. It shows that German economists have long considered the bearing of Germany's relations with England, Russia, and other powers on her economic future, and it is not strange that the conclusions reached by these economists have latterly been urged in justification of Germany's part in the war itself.

Five Fronts. By Robert Dunn. Dodd, Mead. 308 pp. \$1.25.

"Five Fronts," by Robert Dunn, correspondent for the New York *Evening Post*, relates his experiences on the firing-line in the retreat from Mons, during the Austrian struggle over Przemyśl and in her campaign in Serbia, with the victorious Germans in Flanders, and during the Russian drive in Bukowina. The author thrusts facts into a literary structure that reminds one of the short stories of Maxim Gorky; he is colorful, intense, impressionistic. One interesting contrast is well brought out, the difference between the mental attitude of the fighting man who had lived several years in America towards the warfare, and that of the European. Those who had been long in America sickened at their enforced task. "War does no good," was their word.

The World Storm and Beyond. By Edwin D. Schoonmaker. Century. 294 pp. \$2.

Edwin Davies Schoonmaker, in his latest book, "The World Storm and Beyond," endeavors to interpret the war in its historical perspective and answer certain pertinent questions. Some of the questions are as follows: Has the rôle of Cæsar fallen to the Kaiser or to the Czar? What is ahead of Russia? What lessons in Democracy may we learn from the dominant Slavic race? Has the Church collapsed? Has the war, instead of defeating Socialism, proved its validity? How will the wholesale slaughter of men affect the problems of women? He sees the Germanic struggle as an internal revolution, a "revolt against an antiquated and repressive political system," and more broadly speaking, against the moral

failure of efficiency. He lays at the feet of England the burden of various troubles that have disturbed Europe since the Treaty of San Stefano, and perceives the British Empire in its restriction of the actual land surface of the earth as the real menace to the establishment of coöperating international relationships. Russian oppression he thinks largely due to Russia's Baltic-German officialdom,—to individuals like Count Witte and Plehve.

Books About Japan and China

A History of the Japanese People from the Earliest Times to the End of the Meiji Era.

By Captain F. Brinkley and Baron Kikuchi. New York: The Encyclopædia Britannica Company. 784 pp., ill. \$3.50.

This is virtually the first attempt to present in popular form in the English language the whole story of Japan's twenty-five centuries. The author, Captain Brinkley, of the Royal Artillery, lived forty years in Japan and had unusual opportunities for studying the people of the Island Kingdom and their historic background. In the present work he had the collaboration of Baron Kikuchi, former president of the Imperial University. The volume is attractively illustrated.

America to Japan. Edited by Lindsay Russell. Putnam. 318 pp. \$1.25.

Recently a group of Japanese statesmen and other leaders of thought united in preparing a volume of information as to conditions in Japan, the ideals of Japanese leaders, and the state of public opinion in regard to the maintenance of peaceful relations with the United States. That book, entitled "Japan to America," now has a companion volume, "America to Japan," made up of contributions from representative citizens of the United States on the relations between the two peoples and special topics of interest to both. The two volumes together constitute a remarkable expression of international opinion.

The Re-Making of China. By Adolf S. Waley. Dutton. 93 pp. \$1.

In this little book the recent history of China is related from the point of view of internal disintegration rather than Western influence in the direction of republicanism. The author shows intimate acquaintance with the facts of the downfall of the Manchu Dynasty.

History

Tabular View of Universal History. Compiled by George Palmer Putnam and George Haven Putnam. Putnam. 415 pp., maps. \$2.50.

This chronological conspectus of history arranges noteworthy events in parallel columns, somewhat after the system followed in the "Epitome of Universal History," by Ploetz, which is much used by historical scholars. The present work was begun as long ago as 1832 under the title of "The World's Progress," and was successively revised during the lifetime of its author. Mr. George Haven Putnam, son of the original compiler, has taken the historical tables employed in "The World's Progress" and brought them up to date, thus making a convenient presentation of essential dates and facts.

The Rise of the Dutch Kingdom, 1795-1813. By Hendrik Willem Van Loon. Doubleday, Page. 279 pp., ill. \$2.50.

This book recounts the degradation of Holland under Napoleon and her restoration as a constitutional monarchy to something like her former prestige as one of the great maritime powers of the world. The story is vividly narrated and the work, as a whole, forms a fitting sequel to the author's "Fall of the Dutch Republic."

Military Annals of Greece. 2 Vols. By William L. Snyder. Badger. 692 pp. \$3.

It is said that Mr. Snyder is the only American author of a history of Greece, with the exception of school text-books. Another of his claims to distinction is his acceptance of the truthfulness of Herodotus as a historian. His book is not strictly confined to military history, but considerable space is given to literary and archeological discussions, one chapter being devoted to a comparison of the Homeric poems and the poetry of the Old Testament.

Flags of the World, Past and Present. By W. J. Gordon. Warne. 256 pp., ill. \$2.25.

Although written from the English view-point, the information gathered in this volume comes from every important nation, and there seems to be no insular bias in the method by which the facts are presented.

The British Navy: Its Making and Meaning. By Ernest Protheroe. Dutton. 694 pp., ill. \$2.50.

An enthusiastic account of the rise of British sea power which should be especially welcome at this time to the British Admiralty in its efforts to popularize the naval service.

A History of the Civil War in the United States. By Vernon Blythe. Neale. 411 pp., maps. \$2.

One of the comparatively few Civil War histories that have been written from the Southern standpoint. The author is the son of a Confederate soldier, but acquired his education chiefly in the North and has lived many years in both the North and West. His endeavor has been to write a non-partisan history of the war, and he has at least succeeded in eliminating sectional prejudice.

Who Built the Panama Canal? By W. Leon Pepperman. Dutton. 419 pp., ill. \$2.

The title of this book is a fair question and it is fairly and fully answered by a man who was closely associated with the work of the Second Isthmian Commission and thus had intimate knowledge of the foundation labors in the Canal Zone of Theodore P. Shonts, John F. Stevens, William C. Gorgas, and others. This pioneer stage in the canal history has been characterized as the railroad régime to distinguish it from the army administration of Colonel Goethals. And now, while the nation is congratulating itself on the successful completion of this great work, under the leadership of an army engineer, it is well to remember that the scheme was laid out and its success made possible by representative railroad men.

The State Reservation at Niagara: A History. By Charles M. Dow. Albany: J. B. Lyon Company. 202 pp.

The author of this work is the one citizen of the State of New York who from the very beginning has been closely associated with the movement to create and beautify the State Reservation of Niagara. This movement, after many years of more or less uncertain progress, has at last resulted in excluding from Niagara Falls the sordid commercial influences that once ruled there. The State Reservation is now a beautiful and well-administered park, in every way a credit to the Empire State. Mr. Dow has been for more than a decade the president of the Commission.

The Revolutionary Period in Europe, 1763-1815. By Henry Eldridge Bourne. Century. 494 pp. \$2.50.

Although the French Revolution itself is the central episode treated in this work, the entire period of over half a century from 1763 to 1815 is surveyed, six chapters being given to the old régime, ten to the Revolution, and eleven to the Napoleonic era. Although Europe was desolated by war during one-half of this period, the real theme of this book is not found in the narrative of war or diplomacy, but rather in the great social movement of which war and diplomacy were incidents. The author devotes a special chapter to the industrial revolution.

Children of France. By E. Maxtone Graham. Dutton. 318 pp., ill. \$2.

These brief sketches of children of the French Court in the days of the old régime are closely related to the history of France during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, and especially to the period of transition including the Revolution itself.

The American Indian as Slaveholder and Secessionist. By Annie Heloise Abel. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company. 394 pp., ill. \$5.

The slave-holding Indians of the Southwest are dealt with in a series of three volumes of which the first has just appeared. The author, Dr. Annie Heloise Abel, calls this first volume "an omitted chapter in the diplomatic history of the Southern Confederacy." The documents cited in this book show that treaties binding the Indian nations in an alliance with the seceded States were negotiated under the authority of the Confederate State Department. The second and third volumes of the series, which are now in preparation, deal respectively with the part taken by the Indians in the Civil War, and later during the reconstruction period.

The Scotch-Irish in America. By Henry Jones Ford. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 607 pp. \$2.

In this volume Professor Ford traces the history of the Ulster Plantation and of the influences that formed the character of the members of that community who migrated to America. He then describes the Scotch-Irish settlements in the colonies and their part in the movement for national independence and especially in the building up of the Presbyterian Church. The concluding chapter is a survey and appreciation of Scotch-Irish contributions to American nationality.

Napoleon's Russian Campaign of 1812. By Edward Foord. Little, Brown. 424 pp., ill. \$4.

This is believed to be the amplest account of Napoleon's disastrous Russian expedition of 1812 that has thus far appeared in the English language. Official documents, both French and Russian, have been consulted and drawn upon in the preparation of this volume.

American Classics

Readings from American Literature. Compiled by Mary E. Calhoun and Emma L. MacAlarney. Ginn. 635 pp. \$2.40.

The compilers have brought into a single volume a collection of readings covering the whole range of American literature, both prose and poetry, from early colonial times to the present. The selections are presented in strictly chronological order, and the book serves a useful purpose as an auxiliary to text-books of history.

The Complete Poems of S. Weir Mitchell. Century. 447 pp. \$2.

A winnowed collection from several volumes of Dr. Mitchell's poems, revised according to his expressed desires; also contains his dramatic work, including the notable play "Drake." The fine poems, "The Comfort of the Hills," "Ode to a Lycian Tomb," and "François Villon," should be known to all lovers of poetry. They take rank with the best of Longfellow and Holmes.

Representative Phi Beta Kappa Orations. Edited by Clark S. Northup. Houghton, Mifflin. 500 pp. \$3.

Twenty-six of the orations delivered before college chapters of the Phi Beta Kappa, from those of Horace Bushnell and Ralph Waldo Emerson, in 1837, to that of Woodrow Wilson, in 1909, and including addresses by George William Curtis, Wendell Phillips, Charles W. Eliot, Andrew D. White, and Albert Shaw, have been collected and published in an attractive volume of 500 pages. It would be difficult to find elsewhere in like compass so complete an expression of the ripest American thought for two generations.

Reference Books

The New International Year Book. Edited by Frank Moore Colby. Dodd, Mead. 804 pp. \$5.

In the current volume of the New International Year Book, covering the calendar year 1914, the effects of the great war are manifest. For one thing, the stoppage of certain sources of statistical information relative to trade and industry caused articles on those subjects to be less detailed than in former years. A twenty-eight page article on the war itself is contributed by Professor Carlton Hayes.

Essentials of English Speech and Literature. By Frank H. Vizetelly. Funk & Wagnalls. 408 pp. \$1.50.

Dr. Vizetelly's book answers very clearly and simply the following questions regarding the essentials of English speech and literature: (1) How did the language come into being? (2) Who was responsible for its origin? (3) What

changes have taken place in its orthographical development? (4) To whom is this development due? (5) Through what media has it been attained? (6) What were the refining influences that have affected it? Dr. Vizetelly enriches his argument with numerous pertinent illustrations from English literature and the tendency of his treatment of the subject is to give one a more intelligent appreciation of the beauties of the language as well as a better practical equipment for its use.

A Guide to Good English. By Robert Palfrey Utter. Harpers. 203 pp. \$1.20.

A brief manual of composition differing from the ordinary text-books on the subject in its more direct adaptation to the needs of all writers whether in magazine or newspaper offices, or in college classes. It gives needful and common-sense instruction in the preparation of manuscript, in the methods of collecting and organizing material, and in prosody.

Representative Novels

A Far Country. By Winston Churchill. Macmillan. 509 pp. \$1.50.

In his new story Mr. Churchill clearly shows himself an optimist in his view of our national future, although our path has been strewn with the brambles of materialism. We have, as a people, wandered to a far country, like the Prodigal Son, but we have, like him, seen our error. This latest addition to the list of Mr. Churchill's novels is serious in purpose, like its predecessors.

The Man of Iron. By Richard Dehan. Stokes. 667 pp. \$1.35.

A novel that spreads before the reader a vast panorama of the period before and during the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. Bismarck dominates the story. Around him moves the great pageant of history; through him there speaks the ambition and aspiration of Germany and through him you perceive her faults and her virtues. A young Irish war correspondent is the hero, and the heroine is a lovely French girl, Juliette de Bayard. Through her France speaks to Bismarck: "God has made you to be the fate of France . . . you will do what God permits you to do. . . . But rest assured that when next your armies cross the Rhine, they will not gain an easy victory. . . . We shall be prepared and ready, Monseigneur, when the Germans come again."

The Pretender. By Robert Service. Dodd, Mead. 349 pp., ill. \$1.35.

A story of Paris. In order to prove his real worth, an author gives us his identity and takes steerage passage to Europe to start over again in the bohemian life of the Latin Quarter of Paris. A piquant and delightful experiment in fiction,—a grown-up fairy tale; an adventure in simplicity.

Jaffery. By William J. Locke. Lane. 352 pp., ill. \$1.35.

A characteristic Locke story,—whimsical, improbable, and yet in more than one of its passages compelling, and always bright and graceful in style, diction, and method.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—MUNICIPAL BONDS

EVERY little while the individual with capital to invest has to decide whether safety of principal or moderate or high yield is the desideratum. A financial panic or a crisis in national affairs immediately brings the question forward. Unfortunately in too many cases we have to deal with commitments already made and then there is involved substitution of securities at some immediate sacrifice of the investment fund, or perhaps the patient nursing along of a purchase that does not recommend itself in times of stress.

The factor of safety just now has, or should have, the primary regard of the investor. All of the tests that may be applied to a bond to determine whether or not it will stand up when others are falling are being employed, and obviously much chaff is being winnowed in the market place. Those investments that have best resisted the general tendency to react since the European war threw the stock exchanges of the world into panic, from which they have well recovered, must for all future time commend themselves to the man or woman who desires first of all to keep principal intact while earning somewhat more on the capital than savings-bank interest provides.

Heading the list of such bonds are the "municipals." Like all bonds, they declined last August and it was sometimes difficult to sell new issues of them in September and October, but the proportion of loss was small when compared with even the best of the railroad or industrial bonds and the recovery more rapid. A list of widely scattered municipals, such as dealers recommended in their circulars of May or June, shows that prices as reckoned in yields are only a little lower than a year ago, whereas the average of other bonds is about five points off.

Whenever values of all descriptions are unsettled it is the security that represents the direct obligations of States, cities, towns, counties, or districts,—any political division, so to speak, or which has back of it the really productive forces of the country, as its farms, to which the careful buyer of bonds turns. Everyone knows something of the commercial depression in the South due to the stop-

page for a time of cotton exports and the very low prices of what was taken up by the domestic markets. Railroad earnings fell away from 20 to 30 per cent.; industrial enterprises in that section passed their dividends and some of them defaulted. The writer has in mind a high-grade first-mortgage railroad bond of a Southern road that declined eight points and a first-mortgage bond of a large manufacturing corporation that dropped nine points. But the cities through which this road runs have all the time been borrowing at lower rates of interest than ever before and their old bonds have been rising.

There are, of course, local or sectional reasons to explain some part of this disparity. So far as the South is concerned, its general credit has been on a rising scale for years and the discarding of old prejudices which had limited the market for its securities has tended to appreciation in values. Defaults are rare, civic pride is increasing, administration is more efficient. The broad grounds on which the municipal bond market is being established and on which it has advanced to its present primary position are worth brief consideration.

Experts differ over the advantage to the municipal market of the institution of a Federal income tax. As applied to the small investor they claim that it makes very little difference, for the paring of income is so small that it would not pay to substitute a municipal for some other bond, values being equal. On the other hand, it is unquestionably true that large capitalists, subject to a surtax, and anticipating higher instead of lower taxes as the years go by, have been freer buyers of municipals than ever before and will continue to invest in them rather than in corporation issues. The railroad scandals of the last five years, and the unexpected defaults on bonds that have always been considered "prime" and were held by trustees, life-insurance companies, banks, and other large investors, has developed an over-caution perhaps, though that is not a bad trait for the guardian of funds to possess. So more and more he has turned to the obligations of communities which are not subject

to losses from competition, over which the Damoclean sword of unfavorable court decisions does not continually hang, and whose taxable real property is always considerably in excess of the bonds outstanding. The standing of the municipal bond is exemplified in the fact that it is acceptable collateral for postal savings-bank loans and under the Aldrich-Vreeland banking act the municipal figured largely as collateral for bank-note circulation.

The *Financial Chronicle* has just tabulated the municipal bond sales of 1914, indicating the purposes to which the \$464,000,000 of bonds authorized last year were put. It is shown that about 31 per cent., or \$146,000,000, were for streets, roads, and bridges; 13 per cent. for schools, 12 per cent. for water, over 1 per cent. for buildings, about 7 per cent. for sewers, nearly $1\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. for parks, and $\frac{3}{4}$ of 1 per cent. for light and gas. This is a very sane distribution and displays no unsound political tendencies. In Canada, during the boom years preceding the war, expenditure was somewhat reckless and in certain provinces all sorts of municipal ownership schemes were perpetrated from which communities are now suffering. As a rule, however, the proceeds of municipal bond sales go to elevate the standards of life and apply to the necessities of living and, therefore, they are real and tangible evidences of a higher civilization.

The recent Census Bureau bulletin dealing with county and municipal indebtedness reveals the magnitude of municipal borrowing in the last few decades. The national debt of the United States is, to be sure, a very small one when compared even with the debts of European countries before the costs of war had been superimposed. Three and a half times larger than this debt is that of the political sub-divisions which, from 1902 until 1913, increased their obligations 113 per cent. In the same period the debts of States rose $44\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and that of the nation only 6 per cent. From 1890 to 1913 the debt of these sub-divisions increased from \$925,989,000 to \$3,475,954,000, that of States from \$211,000,000 to \$345,942,000, and the national debt from \$851,912,000 to \$1,028,000,000.

The per capita debt of the entire country of \$50 in 1913, compared with \$36 in 1902, is mainly due to the enlarged municipal obligations. From another angle the influence of municipal borrowing on financial affairs is indicated. In 1905 the total of government and municipal loans to all issues was 16 per

cent., corporation loans being 84 per cent. of all. In 1914 the figures were, respectively, 40 and 60 per cent.

During 1915 the effect on these figures will be enhanced by the part Canada is playing as a solicitor of funds in the United States when European sources of supply are closed. To date about \$135,000,000 of provincial and municipal bonds have been marketed here. American investors have taken nearly 60 per cent. of all Canadian bonds authorized. In 1910 they bought less than 2 per cent. of the total.

In a commercial sense a municipal bond need not be the obligation of a city or town or its proceeds employed on schools, streets, water, or lighting plants. Irrigation bonds were included under this general head, with some loss of prestige, it must be said, to the class as a whole. The unfortunate ending of several large irrigation projects in Colorado and Montana, whose bonds were legalized by various acts, only serves to increase the caution and to add to the tests of reliability regarding bonds that fall in this general category. A bond that is comparatively new in the East, though it has had vogue and enjoys high standing in the Middle West, in the Southwest, and in parts of the Northwest, is the drainage district issue. This is an instrument for raising capital for the reverse process of irrigation, viz., getting water off the land. The lands from which water is released are usually extremely fertile and their farm value is tremendously enhanced when brought to a cultivable condition. Where the local taxpayers make petition for a "drainage district" and assume the taxes or assessments to meet the costs of drainage and there is no land booming or colonization scheme involved the success of the plan is usually assured and the investment value of the drainage bond not open to question. In Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, and Missouri bonds of this type have been in good favor for years and through them great addition to the wealth of the State has been produced. The laws surrounding issues of these bonds have been well drawn. The Arkansas law recently enacted has been tested and is regarded as one of the strongest instruments of the sort ever placed on the statute books. Other States where there is just now a great deal of interest in drainage are Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas.

The return on this class of bonds is from $5\frac{1}{4}$ to 6 per cent. This compares with income on bonds of municipalities ranging from $4\frac{1}{4}$ to about 5 per cent. Many of them are

issued in serial form and mature after ten, fifteen, or twenty years. Taxes levied are frequently much in excess of the sums necessary to pay principal and interest. An issue of one Missouri drainage district recently offered in the East was legal for all trust funds in that State as well as for State school and

insurance funds. It is still a debatable question whether some of these bonds on which payment is in the form of periodic assessment are exempt from the Federal income tax. Where doubt has existed, however, it is now believed that they are entitled to this exemption.

II.—INVESTMENT QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 647. BONDS OR MORTGAGES—WHICH?

I have several thousand dollars to invest, and have been looking for a mortgage on real estate. However, I have not been able to find anything that is satisfactory. Would you suggest waiting for a mortgage, or would you consider bonds? First, I desire safety. I would like $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The way in which you refer to the question of mortgage investment leads us to believe that you have been looking for something local. If you are strongly predisposed toward this type of conservative investment, however, we know of no good reason why you should leave your funds idle until a mortgage to your liking happened to turn up in your immediate neighborhood. There are many reputable and experienced mortgage bankers handling this type of investment from other sections of the country, with whom you could have dealings with perfect assurance of getting your funds placed safely to meet your rather conservative specifications as to yield.

On the other hand, if you already have investments of this type, and if you are entertaining the idea of varying the character of your holdings, you will find it easily possible to obtain sound municipal, railroad, industrial, or public utility bonds to yield from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

No. 648. A QUESTION OF CORPORATION FINANCE

I have been offered the 7 per cent. cumulative preferred stock of an industrial company. The bankers state that the assets of the company are about two and one-half times the valuation of the preferred stock issued, that it will not owe more than 20 per cent. of its assets, and will not issue any mortgage loans without the written consent of holders of three-fourths of the preferred stock. Would you consider this a good safe investment? If they have the amount of tangible property claimed, why should they issue preferred stock instead of bonds? Would not the fact that the company sets forth in detail the reasons for offering stock tend to create suspicion about it?

Not in the least. Securing capital by the issue of new stock instead of bonds is thoroughly sound finance. Any established company able to provide for its capital requirements by increasing the shares of ownership in the business rather than by creating a debt has the presumption in favor of its being in a prosperous condition. There is also to be considered the theory that the expenditure of funds raised by the issue of new stock is likely to be more conservative than when money is borrowed, since in those circumstances the stockholders are theoretically spending their own money and may be expected to spend it more prudently. True, it doesn't always work that way. In fact, it is oftentimes the borrowed money that is the more prudently expended under the watchful eyes of the lending bankers. But after all, increasing partnership participation is the better financial practice, provided the stock can be sold on reasonable terms.

No. 649. NEW YORK CENTRAL CONVERTIBLE SIXES

I want some information about the new New York Central bonds. What do they cover? What comes ahead of them? What follows them? Are they convertible; and if so, on what terms? How do you regard them as an investment?

These bonds are the direct obligations of the company, but they are not secured by mortgage on specific property of any kind. Rather are they the company's plain promises to pay, supported by its general credit. Ahead of this issue of \$100,000,000 debentures comes over \$400,000,000 of bonds and equipment trusts, and following it comes \$225,581,000 stock of an authorized issue of \$250,000,000. The position of the debentures may, therefore, be said to bear a close similarity to that of a preferred stock. The bonds are convertible into New York Central stock at 105 between May 1, 1917, and May 1, 1925.

While we are not inclined to look upon these bonds as representative of the very highest grade and most conservative securities of their type and class, we believe they are to be regarded as safe, both principal and interest, and that the conversion privilege is likely in time to give to them an additional element of value.

No. 650. PROVIDING FOR THE FUTURE DISPOSITION OF INVESTMENT HOLDINGS

I own some long-term bonds—most of them bought after consulting your Bureau—that are payable to bearer. I desire to distribute these bonds among my daughters, my object being that they shall have possession of them in the event of my death. As far as I can make out, there are three courses open to me to effect this, viz.: (1) Register the bonds in their names; (2) Make a will, providing for their distribution; (3) Give the bonds away as presents, writing on each who the owner is. Of course, I desire to have the benefit of the interest during my lifetime. In your judgment which would be the best method for me to pursue?

Everything considered, we think the best way for you to solve the problem of the disposition of your bond holdings, is for you to make a will, providing that the bonds be put in trust for the benefit of your daughters. This solution would avoid a number of complications that would be likely to arise, in case you registered the bonds in the names of your daughters now, which would have the effect of making gifts of the bonds. This is the solution which, in fact, commends itself, especially in view of the fact that you are desirous of retaining the interest accretions for personal use during your lifetime.

In any event you should be extremely careful about writing anything on the bonds elsewhere than in the spaces provided for formal transfer. You might easily in this way destroy the negotiability of the bonds and put yourself to a great deal of trouble and inconvenience in getting the matter straightened out.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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TERMS:—Issued monthly, 25 cents a number, \$3.00 a year in advance in the United States, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Cuba, Canada, Mexico, and the Philippines. Elsewhere, \$4.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second class matter under Act of Congress, March 3, 1879. Entered as Second Class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English REVIEW OF REVIEWS, which is edited and published in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 30 Irving Place, New York

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



THREE EMINENT ALUMNI AT THE AMHERST COLLEGE COMMENCEMENT, 1915—THE HON. ROBERT LANSING,
SECRETARY OF STATE (IN CENTER), GOVERNOR WHITMAN OF NEW YORK (AT LEFT),
PROFESSOR EDWIN A. GROSVENOR OF AMHERST (AT RIGHT)

(Secretary Lansing, of the Amherst class of 1886, came back to the college to receive the degree of LL.D.; Governor Whitman, of the class of 1890, came to attend the twenty-fifth reunion of his class, Amherst having conferred on him the LL.D. in 1913, while Professor Grosvenor had received the degree of L.H.D. in 1914)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LII

NEW YORK, AUGUST, 1915

No. 2

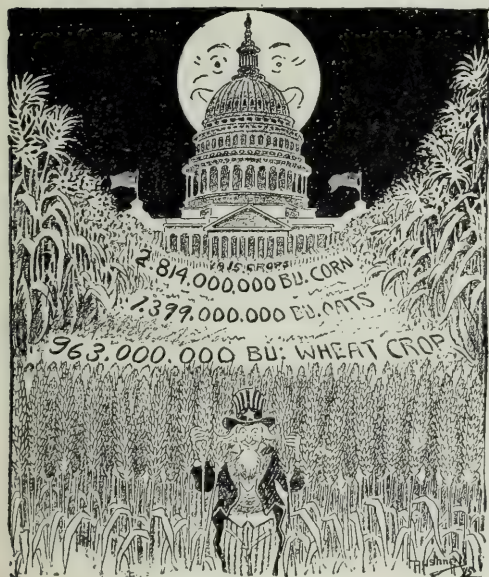
THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Harvesting the World's Maximum Crop

In times of war the minds of men turn with a peculiar interest and longing to the pursuits of peace. Never in the world's history has so much thought been given to the ordinary processes of agriculture and industry as in the present season, even though the world-wide war has made demands and interruptions of so unprecedented a kind. Nations have been grimly determined to maintain "business as usual," and to keep the economic mechanism from collapse. In discussing the food supplies of the world, this REVIEW many months ago predicted that the crops of the present year would break all records unless weather conditions should be adverse to an exceptional degree. This forecast seems now to have been justified. The north temperate zone,—Europe, Asia, America,—has been and now is harvesting the greatest supply of cereals and vegetable food supplies



AUSTRIA, AS THE WISE HARVESTER GARNERING HER MUCH-NEEDED CROPS
From Kikeriki (Vienna)

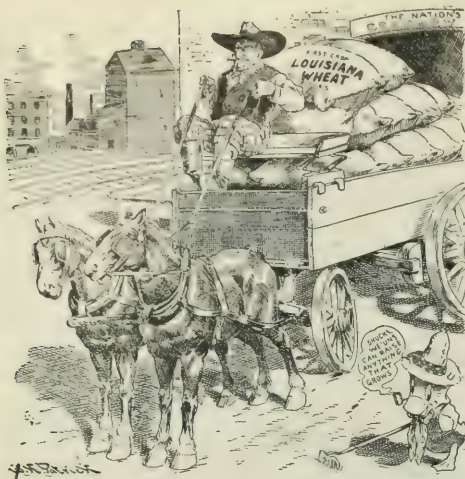


OUR IMPREGNABLE FORTIFICATIONS
From the Tribune (South Bend)

ever garnered by mankind in a single summer. The conditions reported from Germany indicate that the complaint against the British policy of trying to starve innocent women and children by preventing the import of American foodstuffs is theoretical, rather than practical.

Mr. Bicknell, the efficient national director of the American Red Cross, made a brief visit home during the last half of July, and reported the German food situation to be highly favorable. He has for some months been engaged in directing in Europe the handling and distribution of relief sent by the Rockefeller Foundation and the American Red Cross. He declares that Germany has food supplies sufficient to last until No-

Food
in
Germany



DELIVERING THE GOODS!

"Who said we couldn't raise wheat down South?"
From the *Times-Picayune* (New Orleans)

American and Canadian Wheat for Export

Very little information has come from France regarding current crops; but France is a farming country and ordinarily produces ample bread materials. This year's supply seems to be on a normal basis. The British Islands never produce food enough for the whole population. They will in one way or another have maintained their average this year, and Germany's submarine campaign has not impaired to any appreciable extent the facility with which England can import all that she needs from North and South America, Australasia, India, and parts of Africa. Stimulated by the high price of wheat and the European demand, American and Canadian farmers increased their acreage of cereals for this season's crop to a very marked extent. The result is that, according to the estimates of the Agricultural Department early in July, the wheat yield of the United States will be far the greatest in the history of the country, going well beyond the unprecedented crop of last year and reaching a total of almost a thousand million bushels. There were, however, in many parts of the country, very bad conditions during the period of the ripening and harvesting of the winter wheat, which will have caused a shrinkage of millions of bushels in the final outcome. In any case, the United States will have a large wheat surplus to export to Europe as needed. The

venember 1, held over from 1914, so that the present year's harvests will have placed the empire far beyond the danger of food shortage for more than a year to come. Reliable Americans arriving in New York from Berlin on July 17 brought personal reports regarding the new crops. The acreage devoted to the production of food was declared to be enormous in comparison with former years, although the average yield per acre was below normal. German organization and system would seem to have been applied to the problem of food supply with even greater success than to that of furnishing the fighting forces with ammunition and all necessary equipment.

In Austria
and
Hungary

It has been previously explained in these pages that much German land formerly used for pasturage, for sugar-beets, and for non-agricultural purposes, had this year been devoted to potatoes, cereals, beans, and garden crops. The total volume of food thus produced will probably prove much greater than in any former year. The same thing seems to be true of Austria. All reports from Vienna refer to the harvest season in Austria and Hungary as unusually bountiful. The Hungarian plain has always been famous for its wheat, and it is the leading region in the production of our great American staple,—maize, or Indian corn,—to be found outside of our hemisphere. The very old, the very young, the women, the war prisoners, the city folks, and the soldiers on furlough have all helped in raising and harvesting the crops.



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A THIRTY-THREE-HORSE-TEAM HARVESTER CUTTING, THRESHING, AND SACKING WHEAT ON A GREAT NORTHWESTERN FARM



© Underwood & Underwood, New York

THRESHING WHEAT IN A CALIFORNIA VALLEY

Canadian wheat crop, particularly in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, will be harvested from a greatly increased acreage, but estimates of the total crop, as compared with that of last year, are not as yet to be

regarded as sufficiently accurate for final acceptance. It is probable that the crop will go beyond two hundred million bushels, equaling that of the Dakotas and Minnesota.

*Russia's
Great
Crops*

There has been unwonted agricultural effort in the Empire of the Czar. The Russian wheat crop, accordingly, is reported as the greatest, both in acreage and in yield per acre, that Russia has ever known. It is presumable that rye and barley (the "black bread" cereals) are being harvested in augmented quantities. There is a large surplus of the 1914 crop in the Russian granaries and storehouses. This is partly due to the cutting off of facilities for export, and also in part to the use of the Russian railroads by the government for military purposes. This summer, large amounts will perhaps have gone out by way of Archangel and other northern ports. It is alleged that until within a few weeks past considerable quantities of Russian wheat found their way into Rumania, where they were in part transshipped to Germany. Rumania is supposed to have derived much profit from her opportunities to carry on trade with Russia on the one hand and the Teutonic empires and Turkey on the other



BEHIND THE GUNS
From the *Daily Star* (Montreal)

hand. Her own agricultural production, moreover, is considerable in volume, and the surplus has until lately been available for Austria and Germany. We are informed, however, that Rumania drove hard bargains last winter, and finally insisted upon obtaining guns and ammunition from Germany in exchange for wheat, the German cars carrying in war stuff and carrying out bread stuff.

*Rumania's
Bargaining*

Rumania's calculating and bargaining attitude as a neutral has continued longer than most observers had expected that it could. It was believed that Rumania would almost immediately follow Italy into the war on the side of the Allies. This would probably have happened if Austria and Germany had not been so surprisingly successful in driving the Russians out of Galicia. Russian reverses would seem to have led Rumania to stiffen her conditions. It is now supposed that she is demanding not merely that the Allies should aid her in taking and holding Transylvania (which is part of Austria), but that Russia should freely cede to her the province of Bessarabia, which adjoins Rumania on the north and which, like Transylvania, is chiefly inhabited by people of Rumanian race and tongue. These territorial acquisitions would have a certain basis of propriety in a permanent rearrangement of the map of south-eastern Europe. The growing tenseness of the situation was indicated by the new attitude of Teutonic diplomacy in July.

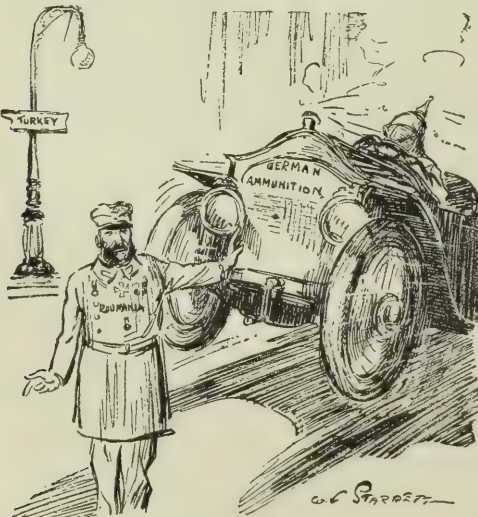
*The New
Policy of -
"Neutrality"*

It is understood that up to the middle of June, or thereabouts, trainload after trainload of German-made war supplies was moving freely across Rumania for the support of the Turkish forces defending Constantinople and fighting the Allies in the Dardanelles. Under pressure from the Allies after Italy had gone into the war, Rumania stopped this movement of guns and ammunition. On July 4 the German Chancellor and Foreign Minister, Messrs. von Bethmann-Hollweg and von Jagow, conferred at Vienna with Count Burrian and Count Tisza, and formulated proposals to Rumania. They demanded the privilege of sending war supplies to Turkey, and promised certain territorial concessions if Rumania would remain neutral, while offering still more territory if Rumania would enter the war on the German side. It is the German view that the mere transportation of arms and ammunition across Rumania is a far less flagrant breach of neutrality than the manufacture of such articles all over the United States and their transportation to England and the Allies. There would seem to be no logical answer to this German argument. It is not, therefore, a real question of neutrality in Rumania, any more than it is in the United States, but rather a question of what the country wishes to do,—or can do in the circumstances.

*"Who Bids
Highest?" Asks
Bucharest*

Rumania now, it would seem, wishes to favor Russia as against Turkey, Austria, and Germany.

This is perhaps upon the theory that Russia has now been punished so severely in the south that she could be induced to give up Bessarabia and to assure to Rumania a peaceful future. It must be remembered that Rumania had previously profited by recent treaties with Germany and Austria, and that her position continues to grow more perplexing rather than less. She is in danger of being without powerful friends on either side when the time for final adjustment comes. Her blockade of German munitions, meanwhile, threatens the Turks with a defeat that otherwise might have been averted, or at least deferred for a long time. Thus the disappointments and losses of the English and French in the Dardanelles campaign for some months past were due to Rumania's failure to stop the transshipment of ammunition; while the now threatened collapse of Turkey is due to Rumania's new kind of neutrality. Popular opinion in Rumania seems to be in favor of Russia and Italy,



THE TRAFFIC COP

(Rumania stopping the shipment of German war supplies across her territory to the Turkish forces)
From the Tribune (New York)

and against Turkey and Austria. But the royal group in Rumania, as in Bulgaria, is said to be pro-German.

*Can the
Balkan League
Be Revived?*

Both Rumania and Greece are further embarrassed by the sphinx-like attitude of Bulgaria. The Bulgarians have suffered much from all their neighbors in recent years, and they will not act except upon strong and definite assurances. Our readers will find elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW a very timely and well-instructed article on M. Venizelos, the leader of Greek policy, whose victory in the recent elections will have made him Prime Minister again, probably before these pages reach their readers. It is hoped in London that M. Venizelos will bring about a renewal of the Balkan League, which he had originally formed to fight against Turkey, but which was shattered when Greece and Serbia turned against Bulgaria. If this Balkan League could be reestablished, and Rumania brought into it, there would be agreements not only among the members themselves, but with England, Russia, Italy, and France. In that case, Balkan power would be turned against Turkey and Austria, and in the event of victory Albania would be partitioned, Bosnia would be added



KING FERDINAND OF RUMANIA, AND THE CROWN PRINCE CAROL

(Both wearing German uniforms—a picture lately received but perhaps taken before the war)

to Serbia, and there would be substantial territorial gains for Bulgaria and Greece, as well as for Rumania.



THE RETURN OF ULYSSES

(M. Venizelos has been returned at the head of a party commanding an overwhelming majority)

From *Punch* (London)

*Rival
Petroleum
Supplies*

It is difficult to know to what extent the trade situation in Rumania affects the diplomatic bargaining. Rumania has rich petroleum fields, and Germany undoubtedly, during most of the war period, has obtained from the Rumanian oil wells ample supplies from which she could refine her own products as needed. But with the recovery of Galicia from the Russians, Germany and Austria have the still more accessible Galician petroleum supply once more in their own hands; and this has put Rumanian petroleum at a disadvantage in the German market.

*German
Industrial
Vitality*

One thing seems now to be fairly well established, however, and that is the continued strength of the general economic structure of Germany. The food question has been met and answered in the face of the so-called English "blockade" which has effectively kept direct cargoes from entering German ports. How large a supply of American food products has entered Germany by way of Scandinavian countries, it is not feasible at this moment to estimate. The reader should bear in

mind, however, that there are no principles of international law which stand in the way of German commerce with Holland or the Scandinavian countries, while there is no fixed rule that permits England and the Allies to question ordinary trade between neutral countries. Germans are saying that they have not received requisite supplies of food, raw cotton, and other ordinary materials (not intended for direct war supply or use) from the United States, because the Government of this country has seemingly acquiesced in the present situation. Thus England, last month, told Sweden just how many bales of cotton she would be permitted to buy in the United States. That, of course, was to prevent large re-shipment to Germany. It is claimed on behalf of the Germans that the situation now exists because the Governments of the United States and Sweden have permitted it.

*Overcoming
Difficulties*

That, however, is another topic. Our immediate point is the remarkable strength of Germany's economic organization, in view of the attempt of her enemies to break her down by cutting off her sources of supply of various materials. We are publishing in this number a most remarkable article by an eminent American chemist of German origin and training, who shows what Germany's men of science have done to meet a great many emergencies created by the war. Perhaps some of these new things have not been carried so far in practical application as Dr. Schweitzer's article might lead the reader to suppose. But undoubtedly there has been in Germany a marvelous fertility of invention, and an almost unprecedented use of energy, knowledge, high spirit, and trained skill and scholarship in the overcoming of difficulties. It seems an appalling thing that Germany should, through her governmental and military structure, be wasting the manhood and resources of the nation, while with her naturally peaceful organization of agriculture, industry, and trained skill she should be carrying on so thrifty and so praiseworthy an economic life. The facts are no longer in dispute.

*Bad Policies
and Their
Results*

Thus the English policy of starving Germany out by forbidding neutrals to engage in the ordinary traffic of selling food to German civilians has not been a marked success. Furthermore, it was this policy which brought on the German campaign of reprisal by use of submarines against mer-

chant ships entering or leaving English ports. While we have maintained that this plan of reprisals has been barren of results to Germany in the military sense, was illegitimate, and ought never to have been entered upon, it is plain enough that it has been expensive and annoying to England. Furthermore, it is also plain that England's decision not to accept the proposals of the United States, made in the famous "identic note" of February 12, has not only done the cause of the Allies no good, but it has, on the contrary, done that cause some harm. No amount of argument, or of justifiable talk against German atrocities, has been able to dispose of the fact that this submarine policy at the start was in retaliation for English methods that had been made the subject of repeated protests by the Government of the United States.

*Holding
Public
Opinion*

In foreign as well as domestic policies, the American executive cannot cut loose from Congressional support; and Congress can seldom be induced to go against the newspapers. It may be inferred, therefore, that for a period, now, of more than two months in our foreign relations we have been dealing almost as much with public opinion and political forces at home as with governments abroad. Probably the keen student and writer of history fifty years hence, in looking back upon the present period, will see that President Wilson's skill lay quite as much in getting the country solidly behind him (which he actually did, including the German-Americans themselves) as in dealing with Germany. Only the inexperienced would suppose for a moment that the so-called "diplomatic notes" are written solely to be read in a German version at Berlin. So far as their form goes, they are also for home consumption. The newspapers have seemed to suppose that they were lending strength and support to Mr. Wilson. As a matter of fact, Mr. Wilson was adopting a method to secure the support of public opinion, in order to keep the country sane, and save it from the calamity of war while securing its rights.

*Executives
Cannot Act
in a Vacuum*

In the long run it will appear that Mr. Wilson is both a better politician and also a better peace-maker than Mr. Bryan, while it is undoubtedly true,—as both men have asserted,—that they have been of one accord in their determination to keep this country from being in-

volved in the European strife. Probably, then, the just and wise answer to the argument that the Government at Washington should have stood firmly for both halves of the program laid down in the identic note lies in the simple observation that executives cannot always do the obvious thing on the dot. They have to reckon with a great many drifts and tendencies of opinion, and they are aware of many cross-currents and obstacles that the outside critic is not in a position to estimate at full value. In our July number we discussed the second note to Germany prepared by President Wilson, which led to Mr. Bryan's resignation and the appointment of Mr. Lansing as Secretary of State. The note, as we then stated, met with general approval, and did not,—as Mr. Bryan thought and as the newspapers had forewarned us,—make for further trouble between the United States and Germany.

*Germany's
Note of
July 10*

No better proof that it had no such bad character could be adduced than the spirit and tone of the German reply. The Wilson note bears the date of June 9. The German reply is dated July 8, the official translation appearing on July 10. In the preliminary part of this German reply appears the following sentence: "Germany has likewise been always tenacious of the principle that war should be conducted against the armed and organized forces of the enemy country, but that the civilian population of the enemy must be spared as far as possible from the measures of war." The note proceeds to state, impressively, the policy of Germany's enemies in disregard of the rights of neutral commerce for several months previous to the beginning of the submarine war on trade. There are two sides to controversies; and the German note sets forth with frankness the German way of looking at the situation. When it comes to explicit points, the note promises that American ships will not be molested, and that the lives of American citizens on neutral vessels shall not be jeopardized. It does not demand that American passenger ships carry no contraband, but it "confidently hopes" that they will not engage in such traffic. As a suggestion to be thought of, the note proposes to give increased facilities for safe transatlantic travel by having designated neutral steamers (such, for instance, as those of Holland and the Scandinavian countries) carry the American flag. This would obviate the necessity of American citizens traveling in times of war on ships carrying the flags of belligerents.



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HERR GOTTLIEB VON JAGOW, THE GERMAN MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS AND AUTHOR OF THE NOTES TO THE UNITED STATES

*War Zones
at Sea*

As to the submarine war zone, the note declares: "Germany merely followed England's example when it declared part of the high seas an area of war." The inference from this is that accidents to neutrals in such an area must be regarded somewhat as accidents to which neutrals are "at all times exposed at the seat of war on land when they betake themselves into dangerous localities in spite of previous warning." As a further suggestion, it is declared that Germany would not object to the use of the American flag on a limited number of English passenger ships, which would then be exempt from harm,—the understanding being, of course, that such ships should not carry war materials. The German note makes it clear that Germany would be glad to have the President "suggest proposals to the Government of Great Britain, with particular reference to the alteration of maritime war,"—or, to translate diplomatic language into every-day speech, Germany says in this note that she would be only too glad to quit breaking the rules of international law if England would also agree to observe such rules. A very important matter is that Germany's practise is somewhat changed already, and that she has discovered ways to give warning and notice in many cases before striking merchant vessels with torpedoes. The German note is written

from the standpoint of things as they are, rather than from that of established principles. It is notable for its frankness, whether one thinks well of it or not.

Asking the President to Use "Good Offices"
The principal object of the German note does not become apparent until one has read it to the end. Its culminating paragraph reads as follows:

The President of the United States has declared his readiness in a way deserving of thanks to communicate and suggest proposals to the Government of Great Britain with particular reference to the alteration of maritime war. The Imperial Government will always be glad to make use of the good offices of the President and hopes that his efforts in the present case, as well as in the direction of the lofty ideal of the freedom of the seas, will lead to an understanding.

This means, in simple English, that Germany now, just as months ago, is ready to consider a plan by which all nations shall observe the recognized rules of international law at sea. The ordinary layman may be excused for not seeing why this proposal is not a desirable one.

Principles are Safer Than Compromises
What Germany proposes is, in effect, a *modus vivendi* that would be most objectionable, as regards Germany's use of submarines in waters that are naturally free for the use of peaceful commerce, but for the continuance of unusual practises on the part of Germany's enemies. The Belgian matter involved a principle. The British Orders in Council also involved principles. The German submarine policy of February was in deadly contravention of the rights of all neutral countries. Perhaps it should have been met at the very moment by a conference of neutrals and an agreement under which all neutrals would have held both groups of fighting nations to an observance of the rights of commerce and of humanity. The belligerents would have been inclined to accept the verdict of the neutral countries, through fear of a resort to the appropriate penalty of non-intercourse. The belligerents have, naturally, gone as far as they were permitted to go, because they were all operating under pressure of the so-called "law of necessity."

Germany's Imperfect Perception
It is regrettable that Germany should not have been able to put more faith in the people of the United States. If she could have ventured to try the experiment of accepting unreservedly the American views,

she would not have been disappointed in the end. Her expression of regret regarding the *Lusitania* should have gone very far. She should have promised to respect completely the rights of neutrals at sea. She should have withdrawn from every phase of the submarine campaign that violated such rights. She should have offered full reparation for each past incident. What would have been the result? The question may be answered in the terms of a prominent New York journalist who has been regarded as most unyielding in his attitude towards Germany. He has said that if Germany would take a sound and correct position, without making any conditions about it, the people of the United States would at once insist upon fair play all around. They would favor the separation of passenger traffic from the movement of munitions. He is of opinion that America would even go so far as to swing back to actual, moral neutrality by putting some limit to the traffic in arms and explosives that is taking on so abnormal a character.

The "Nebraskan" Case
Further incidents have not made German policy or diplomacy appear to be tending swiftly towards enlightened common sense. Late in May an American steamer, the *Nebraskan*, was injured by a torpedo. In the middle of July, Germany volunteered to our Government an explanation and apology that were very irritating to officialdom at Washington. It was explained by Germany that the commander of the submarine, in the dim light of early evening, had not been able to recognize an American flag or any distinguishing neutral marks. Being guided by his large experience, he felt justified in assuming, therefore, that the *Nebraskan* was a British ship; whereupon he hit her with a torpedo. It was the luck of the *Nebraskan* that she was not struck in a fatal spot and was able to limp to shore. Undoubtedly it was quite discouraging to Secretary Lansing to receive this account of the *Nebraskan* affair. There seems to have been no attempt to warn the ship, and to detain her for ascertainment of her true character.

The "Orduna" Affair
Hardly less encouraging was the incident of the *Orduna*, although the principles involved were not the same. This well-known passenger ship of the Cunard Line arrived at New York on July 17. It was reported that she was assailed by a submarine on July 9, at six o'clock in the morning, when thirty-five miles out of



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PRESIDENT WILSON AND COLONEL HOUSE AT ROSLYN, LONG ISLAND

(Col. Edward M. House, of Texas and New York, is one of President Wilson's most trusted friends, and a man of rare unselfishness and good judgment. He returned from a sojourn in the belligerent countries of Europe a few weeks ago, and the President conferred with him at his summer home near New York City)

the Irish port of Queenstown. The torpedo is said to have missed her by ten yards, owing to the fact that she was steaming faster than her accredited maximum. The submarine came to the surface and fired nine shrapnel shells successively, but failed to strike the steamer. There were twenty-one American passengers on board, and it was declared that the attack was without any warning. Since she was coming in this direction, it will not be claimed by the Germans that the *Orduna* was carrying war materials. Our Department of State could not, of course, take up the *Orduna* incident until the facts were examined; and the early reports may have been in error at some point. It was permissible for the Germans to try to stop the *Orduna*, and to destroy her as a prize of war after having given time for passengers

and crew to enter the lifeboats. But to attempt her destruction without warning would be a dastardly thing. The character of the act bears no relation to the nationality of the passengers. It would have been just as wrong even though all the passengers had been British subjects.

*The President
At Work
and Play*

President Wilson had gone to Cornish, N. H., to spend his scanty vacation days, on June 23. The German note which we have summarized was sent to him there on July 10, where he took due time to consider it while maintaining constant communication with Secretary Lansing, who was at his desk in Washington. Mr. Wilson returned to the White House Monday morning, July 19, and it was reported that he and Mr. Lansing had within



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IN THE GROUNDS AT CORNISH

(The President's summer home is guarded carefully against intruders. Photograph shows a secret service man ringing up an automatic time clock which is connected with the central office)

an hour or two agreed upon the form of answer to Germany which would be read at the cabinet meeting on the following day. It was the general understanding that the American reply would be in good temper, but would not alter the positions previously taken. Our Government desires the full acknowledgment by Germany of the rights of neutrals at sea, and has not been satisfied with Germany's representations regarding the sinking of the *Lusitania*. We have not at any time in this periodical regarded the claims and expressions of the American Government as otherwise than just and right. They might even have gone farther in their vigorous insistence upon the rights of all neutrals to be secure on unarmed ships at sea. Such criticisms as we have made have been more especially directed against the sensationalism of a portion of the press, which always discusses international differences in terms of war.

There is at present very little ordinary tourist travel across the Atlantic, and Americans of the globe-trotting tendency are not seriously injured by a season in this country. Very practical and serious injury, however, has come to our agriculture, from the shutting off of our accustomed supply of potash from Germany. Our right under international law to buy such material and bring it here in neutral ships cannot be seriously questioned. We are even more severely damaged by the closing of large European markets for our cotton. This situation is produced by sheer violation of our rights on the high seas, rather than by any form of proceeding that has standing in international law. Further ingenuity and effort will probably en-

able us to overcome the embarrassment resulting from our inability to obtain dyestuffs from Germany. But in the meantime the inconvenience to textile industries is not slight, and it is without justification. Our Government has the means at hand for protecting all these commercial rights. Congress will grant the President full power to lay an embargo whenever asked to do so. But it should never reach that point, inasmuch as the suggestion would probably suffice. One reason for upholding these mere commercial rights lies in the fact that it would be so much easier, thereafter, to secure careful regard for the lives of non-combatants at sea. There was a prevailing belief at Washington, late last month, that having disposed for the moment of the German correspondence the Administration was preparing a clear and definite summing up of the trade situation as growing out of British and French Orders in Council, to be embodied in a note to the British Government. Senators Hoke Smith, of Georgia, and Bankhead, of Alabama, have been particularly active at Washington on behalf of the cotton-growers and their foreign market.

Austria and
American
Ammunition

One of the diplomatic events of last month was the sending by the Austrian Government of a memorandum to the United States, protesting against the American trade in arms and munitions of war, which now benefits the Allies because of their control of transportation by sea. Austria's doctrines are not consistent, however, inasmuch as she has joined Germany in demanding of Rumania the continued freedom of passage for munitions intended to be used by Turkey against the Allies. The freedom that Austria now demands in Rumania is that which she opposes in the United States. It is true that the existing conditions give the Allies an opportunity to buy things that they wish in the United States and to take them away. The Germans have equal opportunity to purchase, but they are unable to take war goods safely to Europe. The United States has not sought to bring about this state of facts. At present there seems no remedy. If England could not order certain materials to be prepared in the United States, there would be nothing to prevent American capital and labor from going to Canada and engaging there in the manufacture of guns or cartridges. The problem is not as simple as the Austrian note would suggest. At least it is an exaggeration to say that the cause of the Allies hinges upon the coöperation of the United States.

Our Trade
Embarrassments

A Year of the Conflict

Our readers will be unusually interested in Mr. Simonds' article appearing in this number of the REVIEW, dealing in a broad way with the achievements of the first year of the great war and the prospects for the near future. He finds that Germany has won great successes on land, but has lost sea-power and colonies. He thinks that such a peace as is now possible would from the standpoint of London, Paris, or Petrograd signify German domination of Europe. He does not believe that the Allies can think favorably of peace until the tide of victory has turned. He does not find the spirit or determination of the Allies weakening, although they may have fully two years more of war before them.

The German Socialists

It is true that Germany could fight for a long time if her own national existence were at stake. But it is not so certain that the people of Germany could be held together indefinitely to fight for the principle of force, of conquest, of lordship over other races. The Socialists of Germany, though not agreed on all points among themselves, are finding opportunity to let it be known that they are opposed to the imperial and militaristic ideals. The war may, after all, be shortened through the growth of peace sentiment among the Germans themselves. At present, however, the outlook for peace, unhappily, is almost wholly dark and dismal. The future welfare of the German people is not bound up with the success of military doctrines. The defeat of the



DAVID ALFRED THOMAS, MUNITIONS AGENT FOR THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT IN AMERICA

(Mr. Thomas arrived at New York last month to take up his special task. He is one of the "big" business men of Great Britain, his coal interests in Wales being so extensive as to have gained for him the title of "coal king." He has been a Member of Parliament for a quarter of a century. Though not at home to face the colliers' strike, his friend Lloyd George was "on the job")



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NEW BUILDINGS BEING ERECTED AT BRIDGEPORT, CONN., TO MAKE WAR MATERIALS FOR THE ALLIES

aggressive spirit will be the beginning of a future for Germany greater and nobler than her past.

Botha's Conquest

Mr. Simonds, in the last section of his current article, tells us of the conquering of German Southwest Africa by forces under the leadership of General Botha, now Prime Minister of the South African Union and formerly one of the Boer generals who fought against the British. This affair is not to be regarded simply as a transfer of a large undeveloped region from the empire of Germany to the empire of



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A SCENE IN GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA. THE TERRITORY CONQUERED BY GENERAL BOTHA
(The picture shows workmen on the railroad running north from Windhoek)

Great Britain. It would be more accurate to regard it as a step in the ultimate shaping of the self-governing republic of South Africa. If the time should come, in the future, when the South African Union should desire to modify or change the relationship now existing between the federal government at Cape Town and the higher authority at London, we have been taught by British statesmen that such desires would be treated with respect and

not stigmatized as treasonable. But it is not likely that Canada, Australia, or South Africa will be in any haste to seek complete independence in a world so troubled as that of our present generation. Perhaps the relations existing between Great Britain and the self-governing colonies may furnish some useful ideas for world federation. The people of the United States desire to be associated with the organized peoples of other lands, upon terms as generous and as free from the possibility of war as those now apparent between Canada and the mother country. So profound are the wrongs and the sorrows of war that Americans wish to use every honorable means to discover and remove any occasion of trouble before it has assumed a menacing aspect. The good relations now existing between Canada and the United States are worth every effort for preservation.



TO GENERAL BOTHA

THE BRITISH EMPIRE: "I thank you, General. You have brought a masterly campaign to a glorious conclusion."

From the *Star* (Montreal)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

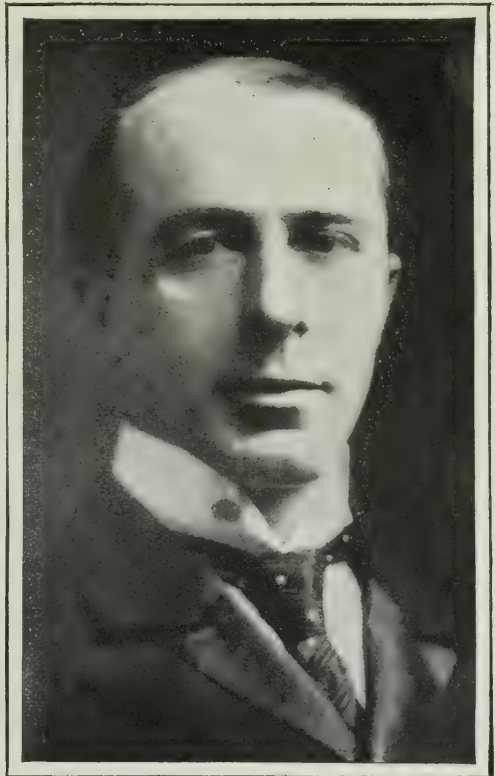
THREE THOUSAND CANADIAN TROOPS LEAVING MONTREAL ON THE NEW LINER "METAGAMA"

Canadian
Co-operation

Differences of opinion in Canada do not touch the question of giving large and continued aid to the mother country. Mr. Henri Bourassa and his friends and supporters, chiefly in the French Province of Quebec, hold that this support is voluntary rather than required by the terms of Canada's relationships to the Empire. English statesmen have in the past justified this view. But Bourassa and his friends are glad to find England and France coöperating, and the whole of Canada is continuing to show that high spirit and loyalty of which Mr. Gerrie wrote in our number for July. News reports last month were to the effect that Premier Borden of Canada had been sitting in the councils of the British cabinet,—and this was pointed to as a sort of forecast of the proposed imperial council of the future.

Men, Women
and Money
in Britain

There was word from England late in July to the effect that the new Kitchener armies had been, during recent weeks, under transfer in large force to France, in anticipation of the ex-



HON. REGINALD MCKENNA, THE NEW BRITISH
CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER

(Who arranged and brought to a successful conclusion
a \$3,000,000,000 loan in Great Britain)

pected attempt of the Germans to make a new drive down the coast for Calais, with reinforcements drawn from their successful campaigns against Russia in Galicia and Poland. England's armies are growing, and recruiting does not cease. The plan for organizing and mobilizing labor under Lloyd George's direction will soon have improved the situation as regards the supply of ammunition. Perhaps the most remarkable event in recent English news is the success of Reginald McKenna, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in securing subscriptions to the largest war loan in the history of the world. Nearly six hundred thousand persons promptly subscribed at the post-offices for shares in this loan. Insurance companies subscribed for hundreds of millions, while workingmen and children invested sums as small as five shillings. When the applications were closed, on about July 10, more than three thousand millions of dollars had been received. The loan bears interest at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The women of England are enrolling in the new industrial army, and helping to make munitions, while serving in many other callings



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

SIR ROBERT BORDEN, PREMIER OF CANADA, WITH HIS
SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, SIR JOSEPH POPE

(Premier Borden is at the left of the picture, which was taken on the *Adriatic* as he sailed for England on June 30. He has been conferring with British Government officials regarding ways and means to bring about even greater coöperation between Canada and the Mother Country)



LONDON'S BOY HERO—LANCE-CORPORAL DWYER, V. C.—ADDRESSING A HUGE MEETING IN TRAFALGAR SQUARE, FOR THE PURPOSE OF OBTAINING RECRUITS

new to their experience. The great strike in the Welsh coal fields, last month, might have proved disastrous, but Lloyd George went to the scene, and on July 20 the trouble was settled and the men returned to work the following day. The men gained their principal points, and seem to have been in the right. It was not necessary to invoke the new Munitions of War Act, which prohibits strikes by providing compulsory arbitration.

*Mexico
Still
Chaotic*

Conditions in the troubled republic to the south of us have not improved during recent weeks. Rather have they grown worse. President Wilson's admonition to the Mexican people has evidently gone unheeded,—for at this writing eight weeks have elapsed, and there are no indications of an attempt by responsible leaders in Mexico to compose existing differences or to initiate a new move-



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York
MAKING AMMUNITION IN A FACTORY IN SCOTLAND



SORTING POSTAL PACKAGES IN A LONDON SUBURB

WOMEN WORKERS IN GREAT BRITAIN, TAKING THE PLACES OF MEN WHO HAVE ENLISTED



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CARRANZA'S REPRESENTATIVE PAYING ZAPATA \$150,000 TO RETIRE FROM THE REVOLUTION. AFTER RECEIVING THIS MONEY, AND GIVING HIS PROMISE, ZAPATA AGAIN JOINED THE REVOLUTION

ment which would have popular support. The fortunes of war have continued to rest first with one of the existing factions; and then with the other. Thus, early in July a Carranza supporter, General Gonzales, triumphantly entered Mexico City, after battling for several weeks with the forces of Zapata,—who, for the moment, at least, is allied with Villa. We were led to believe that the end was in sight,—that Carranza would transfer his government to the capital city, establish order, and earn the moral support of the authorities at Washington. But within a week a rapidly moving Villa force had threatened to cut off the line of supplies from Vera Cruz. General Gonzales was forced to leave Mexico City again to its fate; and once more was it demonstrated that the Carranza-Villa militaristic movements are too evenly matched to afford much hope of a decisive outcome in the near future. The death of General Porfirio Diaz, in Paris last month, caused many thoughtful persons to wonder if, after all, the Mexican people are not more fitted for the rule of a well-meaning and public-spirited despot than for a modern system of representative government. Under

President Diaz, with all his faults, Mexico had at least developed steadily for thirty-five years, and earned ever-increasing respect, though education and democracy had made less advance than corporation wealth.

*Our
Billion-Dollar
Trade Balance*

For the year ending June 30, 1915, the foreign trade of the United States showed a balance in our favor,—an excess of exports value over imports value,—of slightly more than a billion dollars. This balance which Europe owed us exceeded any previous difference in our favor by no less than 40 per cent. It is the more remarkable in that the first two months of this fiscal year each showed balances unfavorable to us; indeed, it was not until November that exports from the United States began to exceed largely imports from Europe. Thus, the stupendous total of one billion dollars is practically the export surplus of the last eight months. The striking result was obtained, too, in the face of a falling-off of exports to Germany from \$328,000,000 to \$29,000,000; to Austria-Hungary, from \$21,000,000 to \$1,200,000; to Belgium, from \$57,000,000 to \$20,000,-

000. Naturally, the bulk of our shipments went to England, France, and Russia, but there is a special interest in the increase of exports from the United States to Greece from \$750,000 to more than \$20,000,000; to Norway, from \$8,600,000 to \$29,000,000, and to Sweden, from \$13,000,000 to \$76,000,000. The inference is naturally that much of this enormous increase of shipments to the Scandinavian countries and other neutrals really took the place of the almost-vanishing trade to Germany and Austria.

Food Stuff
the
Large Factor

If the war continues through the next year, it is thought not at all unlikely that the monthly balances in our favor will not fall below the unprecedented figures of these past eight months; and if this should happen, the current fiscal year would bring a new balance in our favor of no less than \$1,500,000,000. The prospect for such an outcome is heightened by an analysis of the commodities which formed the large bulk of exports during the past year. It is found that foodstuffs, and not munitions of war, are most largely responsible for the record trade balance. The wheat shipments at high prices come first in importance; but aside from wheat, the exports, for instance, of oats alone, largely to feed the horses of the Allied armies, amounted in ten months to \$44,000,000, as against less than half a million dollars in the same period of 1914. It is probable that in the year ending June, 1916, these shipments of foodstuffs will not decrease much, while the export of munitions of war will, during the next two or three months, for the first time mount up to really large figures in relation to the total export movement. It is generally agreed that although shipments of war munitions have been going along steadily for more than six months, the great bulk of exports on account of the war orders in large figures, that we have been hearing so much of, is yet to come.

The Treasury
Deficit and the
Income Tax

Although our international trade shows so prosperously for us in the matter of the excess of sales over purchases, it is also true that the balance was made importantly larger by decreasing imports, and that under the new schedule of customs duties, the Government collected, in the year ending June, 1915, only \$209,000,000, as against \$292,000,000 in 1914. So, in spite of an increase in the income-tax and in spite of the emergency war-taxes, the Government closed the year with a cash

balance of \$82,000,000 as against a balance of \$145,000,000 on June 30, 1914. It is thought that the Treasury condition will be easy enough, however, until the Government is confronted with the expiration of the war revenue law on January 1 next, and with the removal of the duties on sugar on May 1 next. Beyond these dates, the national fiscal prospects are anything but clear. It was somewhat curious to note that whereas the total corporation-tax collected in 1915 fell off more than \$4,000,000 from the previous year, reflecting the depressed state of industry in war times, the personal income-tax collections actually increased from \$28,000,000 in 1914 to \$41,000,000 the past year. To be sure, the 1914 collections were for only ten months, but, after making due allowance for this, there is still in evidence an increased collection from individual incomes of something like \$7,000,000. Undoubtedly this rather puzzling showing is partly accounted for by the increased familiarity of the taxpayers with the demands of the law, and by the more energetic and intelligent exertions of internal revenue agents in collecting.

An Immense
Banking
Credit

While our national Government has some serious problems ahead of it in bringing income up to expenditure, the banks of the United States find themselves with an amount of credit to work with such as has never been seen before in any country. The Federal Reserve banks alone have a surplus reserve of \$736,000,000, which means a loaning power of about three and one-half billion dollars. Experts are figuring that the whole body of 30,000 banks in this country are in such a situation as to permit a credit expansion of more than six billion dollars. This unprecedentedly strong banking condition, the splendid promise of the crops and the rapidly reviving steel and iron industry, are the basic facts on which the new optimism in Wall Street and trade circles is being built.

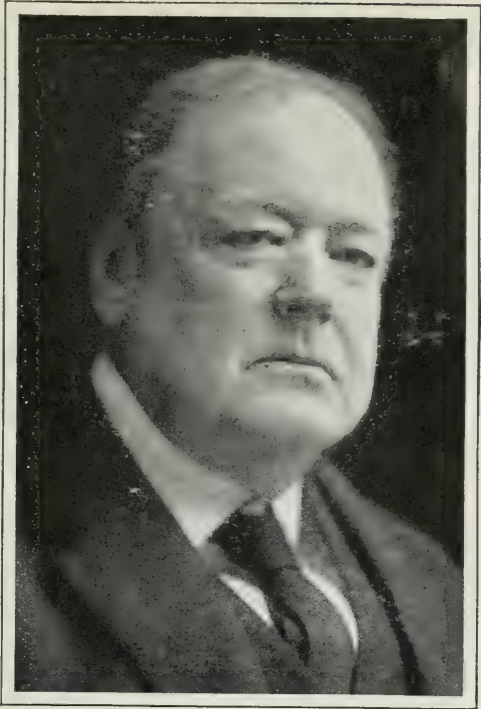
Railroad
Reorganization
Without
Receivers

Aside from the fact that the proposed plan for reorganizing the Missouri Pacific Railroad is in many ways the most drastic in railroad history, it is notable as a new and commendable way of adjusting the needs of great corporations having securities widely held. In June of 1914, the Missouri Pacific system found that it could not pay off a block of maturing short-term notes amounting to nearly \$25,000,000. Through the most strenuous exertion, its financial managers suc-

ceeded in extending the notes one year, increasing the rate of interest and adding securities to the collateral behind them. Last June, after still more anxious suspense, a further one-year extension of the same notes was effected; but the course of earnings showed the managers of the system that when the notes became due in 1916 the company would probably be in a worse condition than at present. As with practically all railroad properties that find themselves in trouble, the main handicap of the financial operations of the Missouri Pacific was a bonded debt and fixed charges too large relatively to the total capitalization.

*Bold Pruning
of
Fixed Charges* The stereotyped way of handling such a situation has been to throw the railroad corporation into the hands of receivers, with large expenses, long delays, and all sorts of legal complications. In the present instance, the directors of the Missouri Pacific go straight to the stockholders and ask them to reorganize their own company and be their own receivers. The important item in the plan of readjustment is an assessment of \$50 per share on the \$83,000,000 stock of the company now outstanding. This sum will pay off the notes which have been hanging over the corporation's head, meet certain other pressing liabilities and cover the expense of the reorganization. With the proposed shifting of bonds, the new company will begin business with \$60,000,000 less of interest-bearing obligations, thus saving \$3,000,000 a year in fixed charges. Investors and financiers will watch the progress of the new plan with especial interest, and with hopes that its success will deal a blow at many of the old wastes and abuses of receiverships.

*Oklahoma's
"Grandfather
Clause"* The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court declaring void certain suffrage restrictions in the constitution of Oklahoma attracted much attention because of the similarity of the Oklahoma amendment to the so-called "Grandfather Clauses" that have long been in force in several of the Southern States. That part of the amendment to the Oklahoma constitution that was nullified by the court decision imposed on all voters a literacy test from which those who were entitled to vote prior to January 1, 1866, those who were then foreigners, and their lineal descendants were exempted. The object of the exemption, of course, was to admit to the suffrage illiterate white men. Before January 1, 1866, when the fifteenth amend-



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CHIEF JUSTICE EDWARD D. WHITE, WHO HANDED DOWN THE DECISION IN THE "GRANDFATHER CLAUSE" CASES

ment to the Federal Constitution became operative, American negroes were nowhere entitled to vote. That amendment forbade the refusal of the suffrage to any person on account of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." Since no full-blooded negro could prove that he had been a voter prior to 1866, or that his father or grandfather had been a voter, there was no way under this Oklahoma amendment by which he could vote in the State, if he were unable to meet the literacy test. For the illiterate white man, on the other hand, the way was made easy. He had only to show that he himself, his father, or his grandfather had exercised the suffrage prior to 1866. The Supreme Court decision was handed down by Chief Justice White, himself a Southern man and a former Confederate soldier. The opinion had the full concurrence of all of Justice White's associates on the bench, including two Southern-born judges besides himself, Justice Lamar and Justice McReynolds. Oklahoma or any other State may, if it sees fit, apply the reading test impartially to blacks and whites, without exemptions. The South seems no longer to be concerned about "negro domination."



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MR. J. P. MORGAN, THE FINANCIER

(From a snapshot taken while at the Yale-Harvard boat races on June 25, just a week before the attempt to assassinate him in his summer home on Long Island)

*Buyers
of
Votes*

A few years ago the country was startled and shocked by disclosures in Adams County, Ohio, which made it plain that many farmers were willing to sell their votes. Within the past twelve months politicians, office-holders, and "men higher up" in two important Indiana cities have been indicted for corrupting elections. A mayor of Terre Haute is now serving a sentence in the federal prison at Fort Leavenworth for this offense, while the mayor and the chief of police of Indianapolis and no less a personage than Thomas Taggart, Democratic National Committeeman, are awaiting trial on similar charges, and seven other politicians have entered pleas of guilty. Meanwhile, federal grand-jury indictments in Rhode Island involve a large number of prominent office-holders charged with systematic vote-buying.

*American-
Made
Munitions*

During the month of July the American public was not for one moment permitted to forget the sinister workings of the European war ferment in the industrial life of the United States. The acts of the madman Muentner in blowing up a part of the Capitol at Washington and the next day assaulting Mr. J. P. Morgan at his home because of Mr. Morgan's connection with the purchase of munitions for the Allies were immediately followed by his suicide, but not before it had been made clear that this irresponsible German (a wife-murderer in 1906) had bought and handled explosives in unlimited quantities and had knowledge, at least, of the placing of bombs in the holds of merchant vessels carrying cargoes of war supplies from American ports. The shock of this discovery was quickly succeeded by alarming reports of labor disturbances at Bridgeport, Conn., where large arms and munition factories are situated. Strikes at that point threatened for a time to spread throughout New England, which is now teeming with a new industrial energy called into being by the ever-growing European demand for war materials and machinery. The Remington Company, which has erected extensive new plants at Bridgeport, made the concession of an eight-hour day to its machinists for the sake of averting a general strike.

*Clothing-
Trade
Disputes*

Meanwhile, an even greater number of workers was involved in differences between employers and employed that developed in the garment trades of New York City during June and July. In the women's clothing industry it was found necessary to work out a new agreement to take the place of a protocol between the manufacturer and the unions under which the industry had been conducted for several years, but which had been abrogated by the manufacturers in May. At the request of counsel for each side in the controversy, Mayor Mitchel appointed a conciliation board consisting of Felix Adler, leader of the Ethical Culture Society; Louis D. Brandeis, of Boston, chairman of the Arbitration Board under the old protocol; City Chamberlain Henry Bruère; Prof. George W. Kirchwey, of Columbia Law School; ex-Judge Walter C. Noyes, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, and President Charles L. Bernheimer, of the New York Chamber of Commerce. It is a noteworthy fact that men of such standing are willing to give their services in the heat of midsummer for the sake of maintaining peace and mutual prosperity in trades that affect the lives and fortunes of perhaps a quarter of a million of New York's citizens. On the other hand, conditions in the men's clothing trades were less favorable. Late in July a strike involving 80,000 workers in Greater New York seemed imminent. The employers, however, granted the demands for wage increase and the men remained at work.

Science as a War Recruit

*Science as
a War
Recruit*

Science and invention are playing an increasingly important part in the war, and the talent of the belligerents is being taxed to produce new weapons of offense and defense. Startling results have already been achieved in the making of big guns, new shells, submarines, gas bombs, and a variety of other devices. In no country has there been a more successful marshaling of scientific brains for war emergencies than in Germany. Apart from the business of making war munitions, German scientists have been bending every effort to prevent the possibility of economic disaster. Cut off as she has been by her enemies from her usual supplies of food stuffs and raw materials from abroad, Germany early took steps to safeguard her economic life and welfare.

Germany's Fertile Chemists

*Germany's
Fertile
Chemists*

How the German chemists found new sources of food supply and invented substitutes for metals and textiles makes one of the fascinating stories of the war. We have already referred to an article by Dr. Hugo Schweitzer giving an account of these achievements (see page 207 in this issue of the REVIEW). While some of the substitutes for standard commodities may not survive the emergency of war conditions, or be entirely practical in time of peace, the resourcefulness and efficiency of the German people in this great period compel admiration. Regardless of the final issue, the war will have benefited Germany to the extent of making her more self-sustain-



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SECRETARY DANIELS, OF THE NAVY, CONFERRING
WITH THOMAS A. EDISON

ing than ever before, and other nations will do well to profit by her example. This is being brought home forcibly to our own country, where certain foreign-made chemicals, for instance, as well as other commodities, are this year selling far above last year's prices. Some of these articles,—with a proper utilization of our own natural resources and American capital and energy,—might just as well be manufactured here, rendering the United States to that degree independent of foreign supplies.



*England's
Board of
Inventors*

England's Board of Inventors German ingenuity in devising new means and methods of fighting has often been dwelt on since the war began. Other nations are now seeing the necessity of similar efforts if they would not be left far behind in the adaptation of science to warfare. England, for instance, confronted with the necessity of combating Germany's ingenious war devices, has now formed an Inventions Board, placing at its head Admiral Lord Fisher, who recently resigned as First Sea Lord of the Admiralty. The board is composed of a small central committee, and a larger consulting group of eminent scientists and engineers who will

MODERN WAR
From the *Tribune* (Los Angeles)



THE GOVERNMENT CAMP FOR MILITARY
(Plattsburg is one of the places where instruction camps for college students are conducted. This picture, taken attendance

take up for consideration questions referred to them by the central committee. The purpose of the board is to assist the Admiralty by encouraging and coördinating scientific effort for purposes of national defense. This new organization should certainly do much toward making available to the Empire, in a far larger degree than hitherto, the inventive talent of the nation.

America Also Enlists Her Geniuses The United States is happily not under the immediate necessity of conducting warlike operations. Nevertheless, this country cannot afford to neglect its rich resources of inventive talent or allow them to be exploited by other na-

tions to our own possible disadvantage. We have given the world the submarine and the aeroplane; and yet we are now far behind other leading nations in our development of these effective machines. The Lewis air-cooled gun, capable of firing over 500 shots a minute, now in use in Europe, is also of American origin, as are many other valuable inventions used in the present war. There is no lack of inventive ability in the United States. We have needed, however, an official system for examining inventions, and laboratory facilities for testing them. Secretary Daniels, of the Navy, seeks to remedy this situation by the formation of a board of inventions and development. This board is to be composed of eminent civilian inventors and engineers, to advise the Navy in regard to new inventions. Mr. Daniels' fitting choice to head the board is Thomas A. Edison, and other men mentioned for membership are Orville Wright, the aviation authority; Alexander Graham Bell, telephone inventor; Simon Lake, of submarine fame, and Henry Ford, automobile manufacturer. In order to assist in organizing the board, Secretary Daniels has invited eight prominent scientific societies to make recommendations for membership, each body to suggest the names of two men.

Should the new board receive proper Congressional encouragement there will doubtless be plenty of work for it to do. American inventors are legion, and there will be a flood of offerings, of which much will of course be chaff. On the other hand a great crop of valuable ideas will doubtless be garnered. A recent brilliant instance of American in-



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UNCLE SAM WIDE AWAKE!
From the *Herald* (Syracuse)



INSTRUCTION AT PLATTSBURG, NEW YORK

last month, shows the soldierly appearance of a body of college and high school students at the end of a week's at the camp)

vention is the success of John Hays Hammond Jr., in steering a small vessel by means of a wireless current. His little boat, the *Natalia*, without anyone on board, is said to have been successfully directed by means of wireless currents operated from the porch of a house some twenty miles away. The practical success of such an invention means that it would be possible to direct torpedoes toward an enemy's ships by wireless from a safe distance. This invention would be especially valuable for the protection of harbors. Mr. Hammond has demonstrated his device before Government experts, and it is reported that it will become the property of the United States.

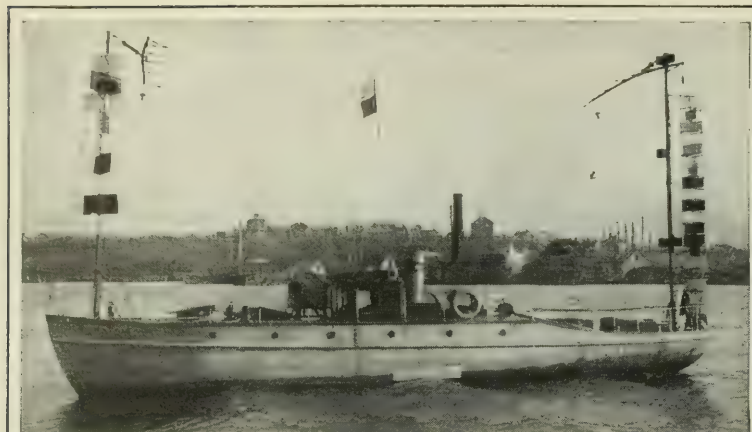
More Sub-
marines and
Aircraft

The various "war" experts seem to agree that the two directions in which our American defenses most need development is in submarines and aircraft. The few submarines we have behaved rather badly in the recent maneuvers at New York, while as far as aeroplanes are concerned, there are barely a score of machines available for both the army and the navy. Congress has, however, authorized the building of sixteen new submarines of the latest type, which will be a good start for a submersible flotilla,—though it is feared the craft provided for are of too small a type. As to aircraft, our manufacturers are busy day and night, turning out war machines for the European governments, and have millions of dollars' worth of orders on hand. We are certain, therefore, to possess ample facilities for building a good type of aeroplane. The last Congress made some increase in the appropriation for flying-machines. The new board will no doubt have

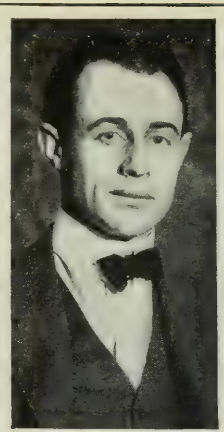
great weight with Congress in the matter of further grants for this purpose. Civilian organizations are doing much in building our various national defenses. The Aero Club of America is helping to enlarge our flying equipment. It has started a popular subscription fund for the purchase of aeroplanes, a method that has proved highly successful in France, Germany, and Italy. The machines so acquired, together with some already volunteered, will be used in the formation of aeronautic divisions for State militia organizations.

Making a
"Citizen
Soldier"

These civilian military organizations are this season showing increased activity and enthusiasm. They are to be observed at summer camps in various places all over the country. The military encampments for college men, inaugurated under the leadership of General Wood when he was Chief of the General Staff, have had marked success. The young men attending them are given instruction in military affairs, besides a training intended to fit them for positions as junior officers. Last year between 700 and 800 students attended these college camps at Monterey, California; Ludington, Michigan; Burlington, Vermont, and Plattsburg, New York. The Plattsburg camp was an unusually large one this year, there being over 500 young men from the universities and colleges of New York, New Jersey, and New England. During the month of August a fresh lot of recruits,—business and professional men from all over the State to the number of 600 or more,—will assemble at this camp for a four weeks' course of military instruction on a tented field.



THE NATALIA, THE LITTLE BOAT WHICH WAS STEERED BY WIRELESS
FROM A STATION ON SHORE



JOHN HAYS HAMMOND,
JR., INVENTOR OF "WIRE-
LESS STEERING"

*Notable Events
on the
Pacific Coast*

While these preparations of a military character are proceeding in the interest of the preservation of national safety, Mr. Bryan continues to work toward the desirable end of world peace by his own chosen methods. At the San Francisco Exposition, on July 5, the ex-Secretary of State delivered a notable address

on his favorite topic to an immense audience. President Wilson, owing to the press of official duties, has been obliged to abandon his Pacific Coast trip, but our Western friends were visited last month by an ex-President. Colonel Roosevelt was enthusiastically received at the San Francisco and San Diego expositions, making an address at each place.



WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN SPEAKING ON THE SUBJECT OF WORLD PEACE AT THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION ON JULY 5

MRS. ROBERT LANSING

THE ACCOMPLISHED WIFE OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE

IN the April issue of this REVIEW there appeared an article on the new Secretary of State, Robert Lansing, who was then Counselor of the State Department. It was from the pen of Dr. James Brown Scott, who had himself been Counselor of the Department, and was long associated with Mr. Root in the treatment of problems of diplomacy and international law. Dr. Scott's praise of Mr. Lansing is based upon intimate knowledge of the man and his work.

In that article we were reminded that Mrs. Lansing is a daughter of the Hon. John W. Foster, himself Secretary of State in President Harrison's administration. The Secretary and Mrs. Lansing celebrated their silver wedding last January. The following characterization of Mrs. Lansing also comes to us from the same source as the excellent sketch of the very competent Secretary:

Since childhood Mrs. Lansing has breathed the atmosphere of diplomacy. She accompanied her father on his diplomatic missions both to Mexico and to Europe. She speaks French, the language of diplomacy, as only those do who learned it in their youth, and she speaks the Spanish, not only of Mexico, but of Madrid. It is difficult to overestimate the services which a lady of Mrs. Lansing's training and experience can render to her husband in the performance of the social duties, which are only less important and even more exacting than those of a Government official. The easy grace, the charm of manner, and the more than fair share of good looks, which are noticeable in Mr. Lansing, are even more marked and more noticeable in Mrs. Lansing.



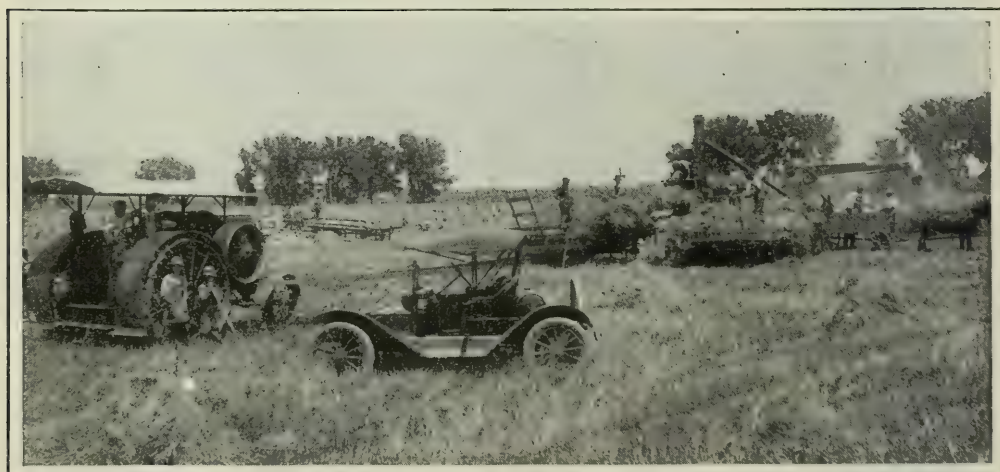
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MRS. ROBERT LANSING

THE GREAT NORTH AMERICAN GRANARY



A TYPICAL WHEAT-FIELD IN THE GREAT NORTHWEST OF THE UNITED STATES



THIS TYPICAL SCENE SHOWS UP-TO-DATE MACHINERY IN OUR NORTHWESTERN WHEAT-FIELDS

(The great traction-engine is at one time used for plowing and at another for threshing, while the owner's automobile stands nearby)



THIS WHEAT HARVEST SCENE ON THE NORTH PLATTE MIGHT HAVE BEEN PHOTOGRAPHED ANYWHERE FROM KANSAS TO NORTH DAKOTA



THE "HEADER" CUTS A VERY WIDE SWATH, LOADING WHEAT HEADS IN ACCOMPANYING WAGON, TO BE HAULED TO THRESHER, AND LEAVING THE STRAW IN THE FIELD



GREAT WHEAT CROPS ARE GROWN IN THE VALLEYS OF THE MOUNTAIN STATES OF COLORADO, WYOMING, MONTANA, AND IDAHO



CUTTING WHEAT WITH MANY HARVESTING MACHINES IN WESTERN CANADA



WHEAT SHOCKS IN A CANADIAN FIELD OF VAST EXTENT



A BUSY THRESHING SCENE, AND SACKING OF CANADIAN CROP

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From June 21 to July 20, 1915)

The Last Part of June

June 21.—The new Chancellor of the British Exchequer, Reginald McKenna, introduces in the House of Commons his plan for financing the war by issuing 4½ per cent. bonds in small denominations, to be sold through post offices.

June 22.—The Austro-German drive in Galicia forces the Russians out of Lemberg, the capital, which they had occupied since September 3.

The British Government delivers to the American Ambassador a memorandum explaining efforts made to mitigate hardships suffered by neutral shipping; it denies any substantial grievance.

A French official report describes the gradual capture of the "Labyrinth,"—a network of German trenches north of Arras,—by operations lasting more than three weeks.

Gen. Christian De Wet, found guilty of treason as a leader of the rebellion in the Union of South Africa, is sentenced to six years' imprisonment and fined \$10,000.

The city of Dunkirk, France, is again bombarded at long range by heavy German artillery.

June 23.—Mr. Lloyd George, as Minister of Munitions (a post recently created for him), introduces and explains in the British House of Commons the measure designed to increase the output of munitions of war; strikes and lockouts are to be prohibited, compulsory arbitration provided, and a volunteer army of workmen created.

The retreating Russian armies in Galicia temporarily check the Austro-German armies southeast of Lemberg, throwing them back across the Dniester River with heavy losses.

June 24.—In the *Frye* case, the United States renews its demands on Germany (in reply to that Government's note of June 7) that the claim be settled by direct diplomatic discussion rather than by a German prize court.

June 25.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by vote of 492 to 1, adopts an appropriation of \$1,120,000,000 to cover war expenses during July, August, and September.

The Russian Council of Ministers decides to appoint a commission, under the presidency of Premier Goremykin, to work out the preliminaries of Polish autonomy promised in the early days of the war.

June 26.—A committee of American importers urges the Government to act in an endeavor to secure the right to import non-contraband goods from Germany, through modification of British regulations.

June 27.—The Russian forces withdraw from Halicz, in Galicia, as the Austro-Germans under General von Linsingen cross the Dniester after five days of stubborn fighting.

June 28.—The British steamship *Armenian*, with a cargo of mules from the United States, is destroyed by gunfire and torpedoes from a German submarine off Cornwall, England, after

ignoring an order to stop and attempting to escape; 26 members of the crew lose their lives, most of them being Americans.

An important advance is made by the Anglo-French forces on the Gallipoli Peninsula, in their approach to Krithia.

A London newspaper publishes an account of the exploit of the British submarine *E 11*, which passed through the Dardanelles and the Sea of Marmora into the harbor of Constantinople, remaining more than a week and sinking seven Turkish transports and five other vessels.

General Polivanov becomes Minister of War in Russia, succeeding General Soukhomlinov.

Montenegrin troops occupy Scutari, the most important town in Albania, and assume control of its administrative affairs.

June 29.—Austria-Hungary protests to the United States against supplying war materials to the Allies while Austria-Hungary and Germany are cut off from the American market.

June 30.—A Board of Munitions is created in Russia, with wide authority; among its members are the Minister of War, the president of the Duma, members of the Imperial Council, and representatives of industry and commerce.

The First Week of July

July 1.—An attempt by light German warships to land at Windau, on the Baltic, is repulsed by Russian ships; a German torpedo-boat is sunk by a mine.

British army and navy casualties at the Dardanelles, up to May 31, are announced by Premier Asquith as 7423 killed, 22,676 wounded, and 6537 missing.

The Munitions of War Bill is passed by the British House of Commons.

July 2.—A naval engagement between German and Russian warships is fought in the Baltic, off the coast of Gothland, Sweden (and near Windau, Russia); the German mine-layer *Albatross* is run aground to escape destruction.

A British submarine sinks an unidentified German battleship in the Baltic, at the entrance to Danzig Bay.

July 3.—Frank Holt, a teacher of German at Cornell University, obsessed with a desire to stop the shipment of arms from the United States to the enemies of Germany, shoots and seriously wounds J. P. Morgan, the financier, at his Long Island home, after placing a bomb which shattered a room in the Capitol at Washington.

July 4.—An Austro-German army, under command of Archduke Joseph Ferdinand, breaks through the Russian line on both sides at Krasnik, in southern Poland.

A German surprise attack on the French line at Le Prêtre Forest, near St. Mihiel, results in the capture of several lines of trenches over a front of 1600 yards.

A Turkish and Arab force successfully attacks

a British outpost at Lahaj, Arabia, and compels a retirement to Aden.

The British ship *Anglo-Californian*, loaded with horses and mules from Canada, escapes from a German submarine by maneuvering until British warships arrive; the captain and eight of the crew are killed by machine-gun and rifle fire.

July 5.—A Russian flank attack east of Krasnik inflicts heavy losses on the Austro-German army under Archduke Joseph Ferdinand.

The great Austro-German offensive in Galicia, against the Russians, apparently comes to an end, having blocked the threatened invasion of Hungary and forced the Russians almost entirely out of Austria,—besides saving the Hungarian crops, regaining the Galician oil fields, and postponing Rumanian participation in the war.

July 6.—The Italian Navy, by establishing a blockade across the Strait of Otranto, completely shuts off the commerce of the entire coast of Austria-Hungary.

A report from Sir Ian Hamilton describes the landing of British and French troops on the Gallipoli Peninsula, in April, in the face of concentrated fire from intrenched Turks; the British losses alone amounted to 2167 killed and 12,000 wounded and missing.

July 7.—The Italian cruiser *Amalfi* is sunk by an Austrian submarine in the upper Adriatic.

French casualties up to May 31 are estimated by the French Relief Society to be 400,000 killed, 700,000 wounded, and 300,000 prisoners and missing.

An explosion, followed by fire, occurs on the *Minnehaha*, three days out from New York and loaded with munitions for the British Army; the fire is brought under control, and the ship is headed for Halifax.

Official figures show that exports of arms and munitions from the United States during the first ten months of war (to May 31) totaled \$37,000,000,—three times the normal shipment.

The Second Week of July

July 8.—Germany replies to the American note of June 10 regarding the submarine war against merchant ships; safety is pledged to United States vessels in the war zone if specially marked, and in order to facilitate American travel the German Government would permit the United States to place its flag on four enemy passenger steamers.

United States naval authorities assume control of the German-owned wireless station at Sayville, Long Island, to guarantee its neutrality.

July 9.—Gen. Louis Botha, in command of British colonial troops in South Africa, receives the surrender of all the forces in German South-west Africa.

The British steamship *Orduna*, bound for New York and with American passengers, is attacked near Queenstown by torpedo and gunfire from a German submarine, but escapes.

July 12.—The British Admiralty reports that the German cruiser *Koenigsberg*, which sought refuge in the shallow waters of the River Rufiji on the east coast of Africa, in September, has been totally destroyed by British monitors supported by cruisers.

A German attack results in the capture of the French position in Souchez cemetery, north of Arras.

July 13.—A German attack in the Argonne Forest results in a gain against the French of half a mile, over a front of three miles; the French maintain that German trenches were won in counter-attacks.

The British Chancellor of the Exchequer announces that the 4½ per cent. loan has brought new subscriptions of nearly \$3,000,000,000.

July 14.—The British House of Lords adopts the Registration bill (previously passed by the House of Commons), under which all able-bodied men will be registered and classified.

A German news agency announces that during June forty-two enemy merchant ships were sunk by German submarines.

Mr. Bonar Law, British Secretary for the Colonies, estimates that 450,000 square miles of German colonial possessions have been occupied by the Allies.

The Third Week of July

July 15.—Germany formally admits that the *Nebraskan*, a United States merchant ship, was damaged without warning by a torpedo from a German submarine, and not by a mine; the commander of the submarine had assumed that as the vessel flew no flag it was English.

Germany announces the occupation of the strongly fortified city of Praszysz, in northern Poland.

A miners' strike virtually ties up the great coal industry of Wales, endangering the supply of the British fleet and the manufacture of war munitions.

Austria-Hungary issues a "Collection of Evidence" relating to alleged breaches of international law by the Allies, recounting mistreatment of prisoners and of Austro-Hungarian citizens resident in hostile countries.

July 16.—Indications point to the beginning of a new offensive against Russia by Germany and Austria-Hungary, with Warsaw as the probable objective; Field-Marshal von Hindenburg is believed to command the German armies moving from the north, and Field-Marshal von Mackensen leads those approaching from the south.

July 18.—The Italian cruiser *Giuseppe Garibaldi* is sunk by an Austrian submarine while bombarding the railway north of Cattaro.

July 19.—Official figures are published at London relating to British interception of American cotton bound for German or neutral North Sea ports; since March 11 sixty vessels have been detained, the cargoes of twenty-five (valued at \$3,500,000) being purchased by arrangements with American shippers.

July 20.—The German advance on Warsaw from the north, west, and south, reaches points within 20 to 25 miles of the city.

A German official report announces the occupation of Windau, a Russian port on the Baltic Sea.

The great Welsh coal strike is settled after conferences by the British Minister of Munitions, Mr. Lloyd George, and other cabinet members, with the colliery owners and miners.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From June 19 to July 20, 1915)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

June 19.—Governor Brumbaugh vetoes the bill passed by the Pennsylvania legislature repealing the law requiring larger crews on railroad trains.

June 21.—The United States Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the "Grandfather Clause," in the Oklahoma constitution, which disfranchised a large percentage of negroes. . . . The Supreme Court, reversing a lower tribunal, holds that the almost complete ownership of the Lackawanna Coal Company by shareholders of the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad Company, with interlocking directorates, violates the commodities clause of the Hepburn Act. . . . A regiment of Georgia militia is required to protect Governor Slaton and check rioting in Atlanta when the death sentence of Leo Frank (convicted of girl-murder on circumstantial evidence) is commuted to life imprisonment.

June 22.—A grand jury finds election-fraud indictments against 128 Indianapolis officials and employees, including Mayor Bell and Thomas Taggart, Democratic National Committeeman. . . . The Interstate Commerce Commission begins hearings at Washington in the petition for increased freight rates by railroads west of the Mississippi and east of Denver and New Mexico.

June 23.—The President appoints Robert Lansing to the office of Secretary of State. . . . President Wilson leaves Washington for his summer home at Cornish, N. H.

July 1.—State-wide prohibition becomes effective in Alabama under statutes enacted by the legislature in January. . . . The New York Constitutional Convention (which assembled on April 6) takes its first formal vote on a proposed change; it rejects a plea for proportional representation in the State Senate, which would give New York City a majority.

July 12.—It is learned that Secretary of the Navy Daniels has formulated plans for the creation of an advisory board of civilian inventors and engineers, to devise improved methods of conducting war; Thomas A. Edison is invited to head the board.

July 19.—President Wilson returns to Washington from his summer home at Cornish, N. H., to consult with the cabinet and dispatch a reply to the latest German note regarding submarine warfare.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

June 19.—The Portuguese cabinet is reorganized, with Atose Castro as Premier.

June 24.—Premier Dato of Spain agrees to withdraw his resignation, tendered upon the failure of a \$150,000,000 loan.

July 10.—Mexico City for the third time falls into the hands of the Carranza faction; Gen. Pablo Gonzales occupies the city after defeating the forces of Zapata.

July 18.—The Carranza forces evacuate Mexico City, their line of communications with Vera Cruz being threatened by Villa troops.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

June 27.—Gen. Victoriano Huerta, former President of Mexico, and Gen. Pascual Orozco are arrested by United States officials while on a train nearing the Mexican border; they are charged with violating American neutrality by planning a Mexican rebellion.

July 3.—General Huerta is arrested a second time by United States authorities, at El Paso, Texas; his bail is increased to \$30,000, which he refuses to furnish.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

June 20.—Eight bathers are drowned in a high surf at Atlantic City, N. J.

June 22-23.—Severe earth shocks are felt in southern California, throughout the Imperial Valley.

June 29.—A New York City 4½ per cent. bond issue of \$71,000,000 is subscribed four times over, the average price received being 101.272.

June 30.—Preliminary figures of American foreign trade for the fiscal year just ended show a balance of exports over imports of more than \$1,000,000,000, a new record.

July 2.—The Senate reception-room in the Capitol at Washington is wrecked by a bomb.

July 3.—J. P. Morgan, the financier, is seriously injured by revolver shots fired by Frank Holt, an educated German-American who objected to the shipment of arms from the United States to the enemies of Germany; Holt confesses that he placed the bomb in the national capitol which exploded on July 2.

July 5.—A basement room in the New York police headquarters is wrecked by the explosion of a bomb.

July 6.—Frank Holt, the German sympathizer who placed a bomb in the Capitol at Washington and shot J. P. Morgan, commits suicide in his cell.

July 7.—A wind and rain storm sweeping across Missouri, Illinois, Ohio, and Indiana causes much damage to property and the loss of thirty-seven lives.

July 10.—A carpenters' strike in Chicago, which had seriously affected the building industry for several months, is ended by a compromise wage agreement.

July 14.—Harry K. Thaw, the young millionaire who murdered Stanford White, the architect, is adjudged sane by a jury in New York, ending a nine-years controversy in the courts. . . . Floods in southern China are reported by American consular officials to have drowned 80,000, and to threaten widespread famine; portions of Canton are under ten feet of water.



DR. ST. CLAIR MCKELWAY

(For thirty-one years Dr. McKelway had edited the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle* with such conspicuous ability that he was widely known as one of America's leading journalists. He joined the staff of that paper as a reporter, in 1868, when twenty-three years old, and by 1885 he had become editor-in-chief. He was actively interested in the educational affairs of his State, and at the time of his death, last month, was Chancellor of the University of the State of New York.)

July 15.—Fire destroys the business section of Valdez, Alaska, with a loss of half a million dollars.

July 16.—The Panama Canal is used for the first time by United States battleships, the *Missouri*, *Ohio*, and *Wisconsin* passing through on their way to the exposition at San Francisco.

July 20.—A strike of 60,000 clothing workers in New York City is averted by arbitration of their demands, wage increases of from 12 to 15 per cent. being granted.

OBITUARY

June 19.—Rear-Adm. Benjamin F. Isherwood, U. S. N., retired, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 93.

June 20.—William H. Rand, head of a great map-publishing house, 87.

June 21.—Sergius Tanejeff, the Russian composer and music director, 59. . . . Brig.-Gen. John Gorham Chandler, U. S. A., retired, 85. . . . Brig.-Gen. George Moore Smith, U. S. A., retired, a former Police Commissioner of New York, 79.

June 23.—Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth, one of the founders of the Daughters of the American Revolution, 82. . . . Commodore William H.

Beehler, U. S. N., retired, a distinguished naval writer and scientist, 68.

June 24.—Mrs. Mathilda Coxe Stevenson, an authority on language and habits of Southwestern Indian tribes, 60. . . . Mother Mary Xavier Mehegan, founder of the Sisters of Charity of New Jersey, 91.

June 25.—Rafael Joseffy, the famous pianist, 62.

June 27.—Suffragan-Bishop William Edward Toll, of the Episcopal Diocese of Chicago, 71. . . . Guillermo Billinghurst, former President of Peru, 64.

June 28.—John Clinton Gray, former Judge of the New York Court of Appeals, 71.

June 29.—Jeremiah O'Donovan Rossa, the Irish patriot and last of the leaders in the Fenian movement, 84.

July 2.—Porfirio Diaz, for thirty-five years President of Mexico, 84.

July 4.—Charles A. Conant, authority on financial and currency systems, 54. . . . Dr. Charles Upham Shepard, of South Carolina, the only successful tea-grower in America, 71.

July 8.—John McClure, Chief Justice of the Arkansas Supreme Court during the Reconstruction, 81.

July 10.—Archbishop James Edward Quigley, of the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Chicago, 61.

July 11.—Wilhelm K. H. M. von Wedel-Piesdorf, president of the upper house of the Prussian Diet, 78. . . . Charles L. McCormack, President of the Borough of Richmond, New York City, 49.

July 13.—Col. Alden J. Blethen, editor and publisher of the *Seattle Times* and former owner of Minneapolis newspapers, 69. . . . Brig.-Gen. William E. Dougherty, U. S. A., retired, 73. . . . Joseph Austin Holmes, Director of the Federal Bureau of Mines and a widely known geologist, 55. . . . Richard Dorsey Mohun, an American who helped to explore, develop, and administer the Belgian Congo, 51. . . . Henry C. Rankin, prominent in Michigan political and G. A. R. circles, 71.

July 14.—Justice John Joseph Delaney, of the Supreme Court of New York, 64. . . . Prof. Frederick Prime, a noted Pennsylvania geologist and metallurgist, 69. . . . Arthur G. Sedgwick, the literary and legal critic, 70.

July 16.—St. Clair McKelway, for thirty-one years editor of the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle*, 70. . . . Mrs. Ellen G. White, one of the founders of the Seventh Day Adventists, 88.

July 17.—Dr. Francis G. Delafield, a distinguished New York physician, surgeon, and pathologist, 74. . . . Sarah Cowell Le Moyne, the actress, 56. . . . Francesco Fanciulli, the band conductor and composer, 62. . . . Joseph P. Bradbury, formerly Chief Justice of the Ohio Supreme Court, 77.

July 18.—Dr. Robert Hugh Mackay Dawbarn, a noted New York surgeon, 65. . . . Brig.-Gen. Palmer Gaylor Wood, U. S. A., retired, 72.

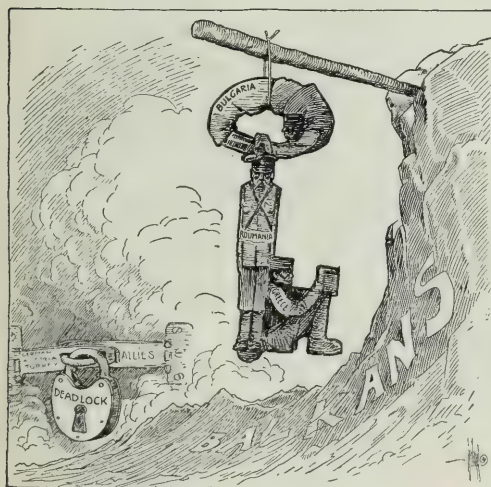
July 20.—John Brown Herreshoff, the Rhode Island shipbuilder, 74.

WORLD TOPICS IN CARTOONS

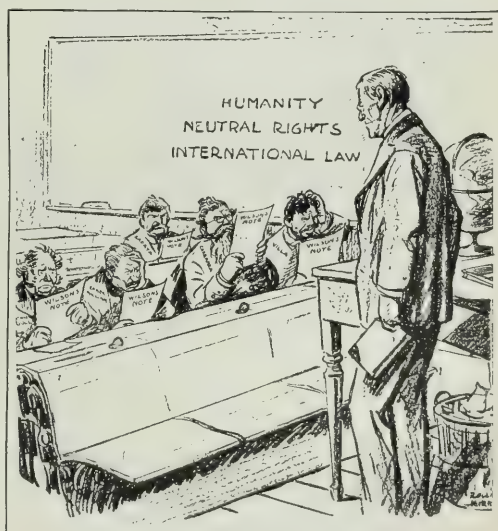


THE ALLIES INVITING CERTAIN NEUTRALS TO JOIN THE GAME
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

THE cartoonist of *De Amsterdammer* pictures the Allies as indulging in a children's game known as "snap the whip," in which the Balkan countries and America are invited to join. The addition of the Balkan forces to the Allies' side might indeed prove a key to the situation,—as suggested by the cartoonist,—at least as regards the war in that



THE KEY TO THE SITUATION HANGS IN THE BALKANS
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)



THE CLASS IN READING AND WRITING
From the *World* (New York)



SOME BIRD

THE RETURNING DOVE (to President Woodrow Noah):
"Nothing doing."

THE EAGLE: "Say, Boss, what's the matter with trying me?"

From *Punch* (London)



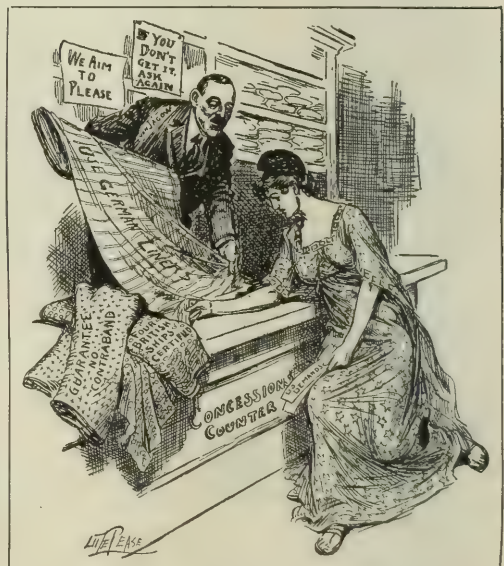
THE SEARCH FOR AN OLIVE TWIG
From the *News* (Dayton)

part of the world. As far as Uncle Sam is concerned, President Wilson is still conducting his class in "humanity, neutral rights, and international law," although the proceeding really smacks more of a correspondence school than a classroom. *Punch*, of London, sug-

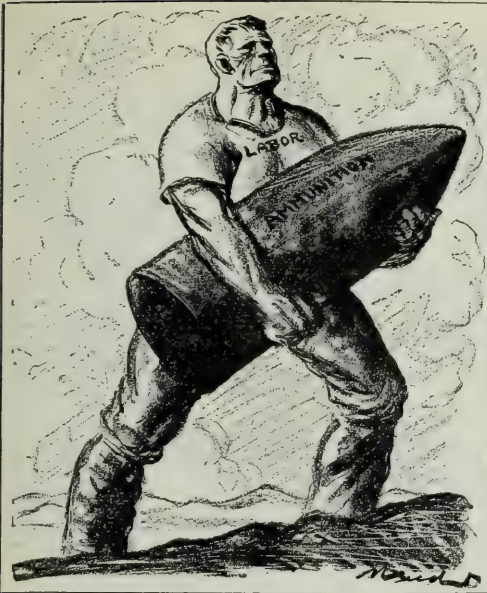
gests that, inasmuch as the dove has not been able to accomplish anything, the eagle be given a chance. The Social Democrats of Germany have also recently appeared to be sending out a dove, in the shape of expressions in favor of peace.



DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



GERMANY TRYING TO SATISFY
From the *News* (Newark)



"ENGLAND EXPECTS EVERY MAN WILL DO HIS DUTY"
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia)

The expenditure of ammunition in this war is on an unprecedented scale, and keeping up the supply is a serious matter. Although the factories are turning out munitions prodigiously, the cry is constantly for more.



A NEW OLIVER TWIST
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)



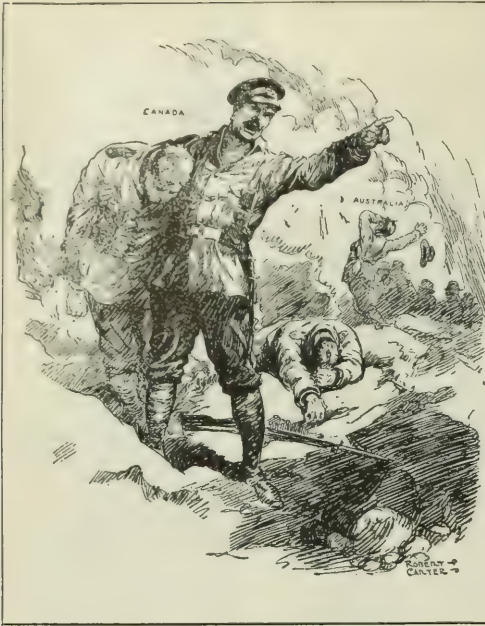
THE TOILING ANTS
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



FASTER! FASTER!
From the *Sun* (New York)



"BRITONS NEVER SHALL BE SLAVES"
From the *World* (New York)



AN URGENT MESSAGE FROM THE FRONT
THE COLONIES TO ENGLAND: "Hurry up, John!"
From the *Sun* (New York)



MORE MAP-MAKING IN SOUTH AFRICA BY THE
VICTORIOUS GENERAL BOTHA
From the *News* (Newark)



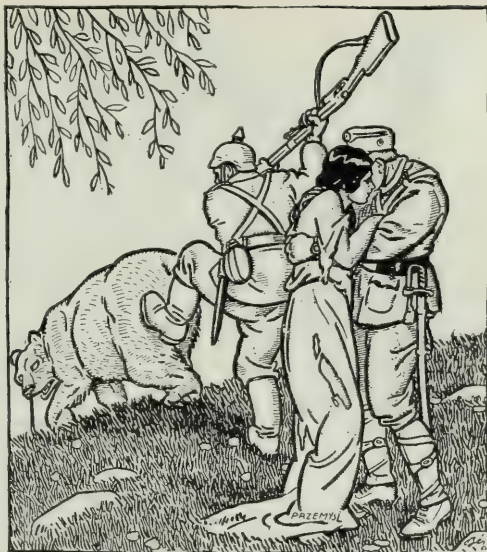
AN AUSTRIAN SUGGESTION TO SPAIN
KIKERIKI (to King Alfonso, of Spain): "Your Majesty, you should rid yourself of that old corn (Gibraltar)."
From Kikeriki (Vienna)



THE BOMBARDMENT OF VENICE
(The Vienna cartoonist already sees the German aeroplanes as the new doves of St. Mark's hovering over Venice)
From Kikeriki (Vienna)



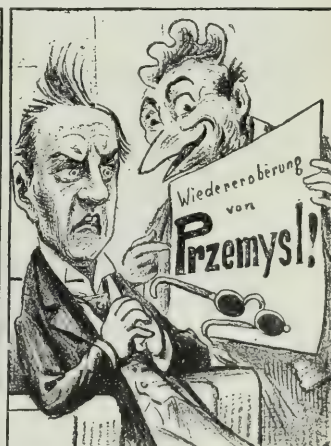
"HANDS OFF GERMAN TYROL!"
(BETHMANN-HOLLWEG's word to Italy)
From Kikeriki (Vienna)



THE REUNION OF GALICIA AND AUSTRIA
From Borsszem Janko (Budapest)



ITALY AS THE REVENGEFUL BEGGAR
From Die Muskete (Vienna)



A VIENNESE OCULIST FOR AN ENGLISH STATESMAN

(Sir Edward Grey, owing to some eye trouble, has recently been wearing dark glasses. In the cartoon, the rooster, standing for *Kikeriki*, the comic weekly of Vienna—acts as his oculist. "Can you see any English victories in Flanders?" he asks. "No," says Sir Edward. "Can you see any English progress in the Dardanelles?" "Not a sign." "But you certainly can see the recapture of Przemyśl?" "Oh, yes, indeed.")

From Kikeriki (Vienna)



"DELILAH" PEACE AND UNCLE "SAMSON"
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)



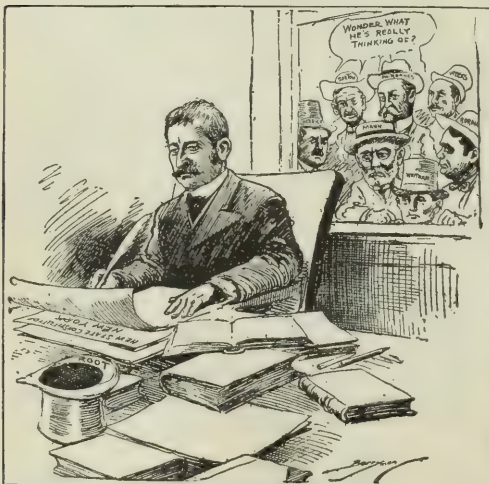
MR. BRYAN TALKING WAR TO DEATH
From the *World* (New York)



SOMETHING THE MATTER WITH THE OLD INCUBATOR
From the *News-Press* (St. Joseph)



FAVORABLE COURT DECISIONS WILL NOW GIVE MR. "TRUSTS" SOME REST
From the *Star* (Washington)



MR. ROOT BEING WATCHED BY CERTAIN REPUBLICAN
PRESIDENTIAL "POSSIBILITIES"
From the *Star* (Washington, D. C.)



TWO QUESTIONS FOR UNCLE SAM
From the *Daily News* (St. Paul)

ONE YEAR OF WAR

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. TWELVE MONTHS' SUMMING-UP

ON the first anniversary of the Great War there is an inevitable temptation to estimate in terms of achievement and result the meaning of twelve months of world war. In this period not less than 10,000,000 men have been killed, wounded, or have gone into foreign prisons; a territory exceeding in area Ohio or Pennsylvania has been ravaged. Cities known through the centuries as the treasure-houses of art or in the last century become the centers of modern industrial life have been destroyed. Written history has no record to compare with the tale of recent months of suffering, slaughter, destruction, human misery, and human grandeur. But what now is the result?

The simplest answer to make to this question is to take the premise that peace would come to-morrow on the basis of things as they are. Such a settlement it is instantly apparent would mean that Germany, helped rather by her use of the resources of her two allies than by any capacity of theirs, has won more European territory than any state has acquired by a single war since the Treaty of Westphalia, a more complete victory than any people since the Napoleonic episode. To-day her armies occupy practically all of Belgium and 8000 square miles in France, that region which before the war was the center of French industry and French mineral production. In the East victorious forces have pushed deep into Poland and approached Warsaw, Riga, and Brest-Litowsk.

On the field of battle Germany has won mighty and memorable triumphs. Her defeats have been repulses, when her foe was in his last ditch. They have resulted in the interruption of an advance, the recoil from the extreme point of progress. But at the close of a year German armies are fighting on French, Belgian, Russian soil; only in a tiny corner of Alsace has the foe retained a foothold in the Fatherland. Allied offensives in the West, after terrible losses, have invariably been beaten down within sight of their starting-places. Since Von Kluck re-crossed the Aisne in September, Germany has suffered no material loss, despite the masses she has sent to the East. The "Spring Drive" of

the Allies has dwindled to a gallant but only locally successful push of the French at the edge of the Lorette hills.

In the East the amazing victories of Tannenberg, Lodz, the Mazurian Lakes, and in the recent terrific campaign in Galicia have checked, repulsed, routed Russian advances and to-day (late in July) Russian hosts are clinging desperately to the permanent line of fortifications about Warsaw, against which German masses are steadily driving with still unchecked vigor. The greatest battles of modern warfare have been won between the Baltic and the Rumanian boundary by generalship and military efficiency in men as in commanders that has only the Napoleonic parallel.

At the Dardanelles German-led Turkish troops have for months held back Allied fleets and army corps. Around the Gallipoli peninsula the troops that lost Lule Burgas and Kumanovo are making a fight unsurpassed at Plevna, unrivalled in the long history of Osmanli power in Europe. More English and French troops than perished in the long Crimean campaign have found their graves in the few weeks of fighting north of the Dardanelles; and five Allied battleships have been sunk in the narrow waterways.

Serbian efforts have declined to mere passivity. Italy, bringing new and eager masses into the field against the shaken regiments of Austria, directed by German officers, has, as yet, made but small progress in emerging from the constricted field in which the Austrian fortified mountains confine her. To hold France, England, and Belgium at bay in the West, to sweep Russia back over hundreds of miles in swift defeat, to give Austria and Turkey the necessary support to withstand tremendous attacks,—this has been within the resources of German genius in the past months.

Only on the water has she suffered real defeat. There her few free ships have been sunk; her commercial fleets have been scattered, sent to prize-courts, or interned. Beyond the seas Kiao-chau, Southwest Africa, Togoland, Kamerun, and Samoa have been conquered. Sea-power has dealt with her as with Napoleon. But as Napoleon conquered the Continent, Germany has successfully de-

feated Russia, France, Great Britain, Belgium. The victory for the first year is then hers. Such difference of opinion as exists must be over the extent of the victory, which, however great, is nowhere yet decisive.

II. PROSPECTS OF PEACE

Conceding, then, that the success is German, what then is the prospect of peace? What chance is there that Germany can in the immediate present turn into profit or into honorable peace the real triumphs won? Here, again, the answer is not doubtful. Great as her successes are, they have been of the character to make further war inevitable. Peace to-day would leave Germany mistress of Europe. Industrially she would win through the fact that she has ruined the great manufacturing regions of Belgium, Northern France, and Poland, while her own factory districts are undisturbed.

But politically her success is even more dangerous to the rest of Europe. Even if she now ceded back French and Russian territory and left Belgium, she would have put France outside the number of great powers. It is inconceivable that France, or stricken Belgium, would again stand in German pathway. France would sink to a second-rate power, a political dependent on German will, and Belgium insensibly become a Teutonic outpost, a region for pacific penetration.

For Germany, in addition to having occupied French and Belgian and Russian territory, has to all practical purposes absorbed Austria-Hungary and thereby added fifty millions to one central empire.

Peace now would mean that 25,000,000 Austrian Slavs would be bent to German purpose; that this vast empire would in its own time descend to the Egean, crush the remnant of independent southern Slavs, and throw aside the weak Hellenic barrier. Collectively, her foes have not yet been able to defeat her; individually, they would not dare to venture to interpose between Germany and her purpose. The one failure of Germany has been the inability of her diplomacy to keep her rivals apart. Bismarck did not make this mistake and German diplomacy would not make it again.

Such peace as is now possible, viewed from London, Paris, or Petrograd, would mean German domination of Europe. To Germany's foes it would mean the recognition of almost all of what Germany has sought, with the perfect realization that the rest would

follow inevitably and at no distant date. Recalling how difficult has been the process to unite Russia, England, France, and Italy, who can believe it could be repeated or that Germany would fail to find one necessary temporary ally?

The enemies of Germany, then, still suffering from no serious injury, collectively far richer and far more numerous in population, are convinced that peace now on the best terms conceivable,—the restoration of the conditions of the day before the war broke out,—would mean a German triumph, perilous, if not absolutely fatal, to all their own national interests. They believe that it would mean a repetition of the Napoleonic time, when war followed war until at last Europe united to curb and destroy Napoleonic dreams of world domination.

It is not necessary to accept this view as correct. But it is essential to recognize that it prevails in all the Allied capitals and that since it does prevail, there is not the smallest prospect of peace short of the exhaustion of some of the contestants. To judge from outward evidences, this exhaustion is still a long way off. Every estimate of the duration of the war is a sheer guess, and yet my own conviction, based on all evidence available in all capitals, is that the enemies of Germany are preparing for at least two years more, and I can detect no present evidence of any breakdown in German resources that suggests that, for the greater part of that time at least, Germany will not be able to defend herself, if not all of her conquests.

There remains the possibility of a decision before that time. If Germany can crush Russia in her present campaign,—not locally, but in such fashion as to eliminate her for some months,—and then bring sufficient troops and ammunition west to break down French and British resistance before snow flies, complete German victory is likely. But failing a twofold decision before winter, which is just conceivable, the chance of German conquest seems slight. Her chance of holding off her foes until slaughter and bankruptcy pass human endurance is another matter. But Italian forces are daily growing; British troops must in time become decisively numerous; Russia, despite her handicaps, will always be able to produce new corps with necessary delays. Therefore, to win big, to succeed in the completer sense, I am satisfied that Germany must succeed east and west before Christmas, while Constantinople is still untaken.

In estimating the prospects of peace it is

necessary to visualize the situation as the Allies now see it. To them Germany has become a central empire extending, not from the Meuse to Memel, but from the Channel to the Gulf of Libau,—not from the Etsch to the Belt, but from the Belt to the Balkans, and, with but a thin intervening façade, to the Euphrates and the Arabian Desert. This little Balkan interruption would promptly vanish with the signing of peace. Turkey, now a Teutonic outpost, is still the head of Islam, and from Stamboul is and would be preached the gospel that spells ruin to French, Russian, British, and Italian colonial empires from the Straits Settlements to Cape Spartel.

Americans will do well to recall the situation at the close of the first year of the Civil War. Then, any possible accommodation of the differences would have yielded the South that independence which was its single aim. Peace now would concede to Germany quite as completely the goal of her leaders, of her statesmen, soldiers, and dreamers. It would, in the Allied view at least (and it is from this standpoint that we must look in discussing the prospects of peace), mean the realization of the dream of "world power." Napoleon after Austerlitz, even after Wagram, was not more nearly a world ruler than would William II be, so the Allied capitals believe, if peace came now on any conceivable terms. That is why peace is a forbidden subject in all Allied circles.

III. WHY GERMANY HAS WON

Conceding, then, that Germany has, without actually or approximately achieving a decision, won a remarkable series of triumphs in the first twelve months of the war, what are the causes? Outnumbered, inferior in population, wealth, resources, cut off from the sea, how has she been able to conquer provinces and win campaigns?

At the outset of the war the world ascribed German success to that marvelous military machine which impressed itself upon the mind and the imagination of mankind. German preparation, foresight, military genius held the wonder of a world.

Yet the cold fact is that the military genius failed. It was not equal to the task set for it. At the Marne it broke down, not as the Prussian machine broke down at Jena, but it was defeated and the decision for which it had risked all turned against it.

Yet the consequences of defeat were relatively slight and they were slight because

behind the machine there was a nation, organized, disciplined, united. A world which talked about helpless masses hurled by Hohenzollern might against the foe unwillingly knows better now. It recognizes that Hohenzollern and stable-boy were but component parts of a nation, a people, which had submitted itself to age-long discipline, which had endured severe training and was prepared to suffer untold hardships, because it was serving a national ideal.

Germany was not merely possessed of a marvelous military machine. Her people through long years had been taught, had been trained, had come to believe in a destiny for their country that could be realized only by supreme effort. Before the present war the average Englishman talked somewhat vaguely of the Boer War; the Frenchman, of 1870; but the average German began his historical review with the Thirty Years' War and passionately, bitterly lamented the loss that had come to Germany by years when Europe took advantage of her helplessness to divide the East.

Out of this state of mind had sprung the spirit that recalls Sparta,—the civilization, the ideals, the virtues, and indeed the vices which were Lacedemonian. Germany was not merely ready with an army. Every detail of national life was mobilized with the call to arms; industry, agriculture, every branch of the life of a people was ready. The victories won by the 42-centimeter were in the opening days, but the real battles were won behind the firing-line later.

Thus after the Marne and the Battle of Flanders the German resources rapidly mounted, while those of the Allies almost stood still. Ammunition, equipment, all the necessities of war, were turned out by German factories, food was stored and distributed. National organization repaired the failure of the military machine. German armies made head against a world in arms because behind them was an organized nation, not only trained, but moved by a spirit quite as genuinely patriotic, quite as national, as the French, more intelligently alert than the British.

On the battlefield save in the opening weeks the German troops have not proven themselves superior to the French. The French field artillery has been more effective than the German. Russian armies have not been lacking in courage; their commanders have shown skill. But the Russian nation has not mobilized to meet the situation as has the German. The French were not

mobilized. They have overtaken the Germans now, but the dark blot on the map of France is the price that has been paid because the French nation was not ready.

Germany has so far won because she knew her own mind, from the outset, was moved by a national spirit quite as splendid in its vigor as that of the French in 1792, and had over long years subjected herself to a discipline which the years of her weakness and suffering had taught her was essential to her safety and then to her larger success.

In a year of war Germany has taught the world the meaning of national organization. It may prove to be as enduring a lesson, when the merely military details are eliminated, as the other lessons of the French Revolution. In this thing the Germans call *Kultur* the army is but a detail, a major detail to-day, but one that may vanish tomorrow and leave the real lesson useful to mankind.

IV. WHERE GERMANY HAS FAILED

Notwithstanding her great success, it is plain that the real prize has so far, if not permanently, slipped through Germany's fingers. What has been the cause of this failure? Why have the most splendid army and the most perfect national organization, despite the most complete and systematic preparation, missed a decision against disorganized, if collectively stronger, foes?

Plainly because German science and German foresight failed to reckon with the imponderables,—above all with the national spirit and patriotism of other races.

The invasion of Belgium was not the military mistake it seemed to most of us in the opening days of the war. The Belgian army did not interrupt German plans or assure German defeat, as has been said so often. But it did rouse the moral sense of Europe. It did give to every Frenchman, to every Englishman, precisely that inspiration which adds the decisive force in close contests. More than all else it explains the presence of Italy in the battle-lines to-day. It assured the presence of the British in France in the opening days of the war.

But its effect upon the French can hardly be described. It gave a nation which always needs the stimulus of a great idea to fight best, one of the most deeply stirring of incentives. It united 1792 to 1914 in the mind of every soldier of the Republic. It enlisted and continues to enlist neutral support and neutral sympathy for the foes of Germany.

To strike France quickly Germany invaded Belgium and the invasion gave to French and British arms new force. It even spurred the slower-moving Slav to the unexpected success in mobilization which made the invasion of East Prussia possible and fatal to German plans.

The German spirit of nationality in the very opening hours of the struggle awakened the same opposing spirit which ultimately overthrew Napoleon. 1914 took on the character of 1813, but the French and Prussians had changed sides. Yet behind this spirit of other races there was no national organization such as Germany possessed. There was just the necessary strength to check the flood at the Marne, and again in Flanders repulse could not be turned into decisive victory, because only the German people had been ready.

Yet from the day the first German soldier set foot on Belgian soil to the present moment the consequences have been fatal to German plans. France, with the Belgian example before her, saved herself and Europe at the Marne. Serbia answered Austrian tyranny and arrogance by the victory of the Jedar. The war took on the character of a war of liberation for subject races. The Balkans stirred uneasily. Italy, driven by a reaction of the Belgian episode, moved from neutrality to war. Rumania, with her millions to liberate, is to-day almost on the edge of war, and Greece is apparently at the point of casting her lot with the Allies to free her fellow Hellenes in Asia Minor.

A war between France and Germany, between Austria and Russia, a conflict between the two sets of allies, would have been a different thing. It would have been one more in the long series of European conflicts over questions of power. In such a conflict German success cannot be questioned and men would have differed as their sympathies run. But instead, four great and two smaller states are fighting two great powers and crumbling Turkey. Other states seem on the point of entering and the war has changed character utterly.

The Slav, the Latin, the Anglo-Saxon, differing in every conceivable fashion, have been brought into an alliance which grows closer rather than weakens with defeat and delay. So far this alliance has only availed to hold back German masses from their goal. It is not yet clear that it will succeed, although the great crisis is now at hand. But if it does hold, this incongruous alliance, it will be because the German has armed his



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

A PICTURESQUE ITALIAN WAR SCENE

(Italian Alpine troops, marching in their single-file formation through the mountainous country that forms the battleground between Italy and Austria)



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

EQUIPPED TO MEET THE ITALIAN MOUNTAINEERS

(A detachment of Bavarians with climbing staffs, and goggles to protect the eyes from the glare of the snow-reflected sun)

THE MOUNTAIN FIGHTERS OF ITALY AND GERMANY

possible foes with the one weapon that could save them, the weapon of national spirit, the spirit that liberated Prussia from Napoleon.

More and more as the terrible conflict proceeds we are passing from the stage of the battle of men to the battle of ideas. More and more, too, the conflict is taking on the aspect of a battle of the world against the German and as it progresses the world is learning from the Germans the secret of their success,—the value of national organization. To this extent the German idea is conquering the world. But the German arms have so far failed, because the German idea enlists new enemies to replace conquered hosts and the German has, so far, failed to understand the idea, the nationalism of his foes.

V. THE NEW DRIVE ON WARSAW

When I closed my chronicle of military operations for the July REVIEW OF REVIEWS the question was still open whether Russia could sufficiently rally her forces to defend Lemberg. She failed. Despite the admirable defensive line of Grodek, with its lakes and marshes, despite the patent stiffening of her lines, the pressure of the German masses was still too great to be checked and the Russians, after nine months of occupation, were obliged to quit the Galician capital. Their retreat was orderly, the "booty" of the victors insignificant. But the victory, the reconquest of Galicia, was now practically complete.

After this evacuation the Russians fell back to the line of the Gnila Lipa River, east of Lemberg, were driven beyond this, and finally halted and for the time made good their ground on Galician soil behind the Zlota and the Dniester rivers from the Russian frontier to the Rumanian boundary. To all intents and purposes the Galician campaign was now over; a greater and far more considerable operation was under way, a new and tremendous drive at Warsaw, a real bid for a decision which should either eliminate Russia permanently or at least for many months from the battle-line.

To understand the strategy of this campaign, which is still in its opening phase, it is necessary to glance at the map of Western Russia. The military position for defense is determined by two railway lines. One comes southwest from Petrograd, the other northwest from Kiev. They meet at Warsaw. A third line comes almost due west from Moscow to the Polish capital; it is the life-line

of Russian power in the West. The whole purpose of the German campaign now beginning is to break the two exterior railroad lines east of Warsaw and reach the third, the Moscow line. Complete success would mean the envelopment and capture of all the Russian forces west of the points where the lines were cut, including the masses defending Warsaw at the Bzura line.

Less complete success would mean the evacuation of Warsaw and of Poland as Galicia was evacuated. Germany would capture the line of the Vistula, take Warsaw, with its bridges, its railroads and roads, erect a rampart against new Russian drives, and be free to send her masses to Flanders or Venetia.

Against such an operation the Russians prepared before the war. Thus on the north, along the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad, they constructed the great Narew-Bohr-Niemen barrier of forts covering the crossings of these rivers and the few roads and railways coming south from East Prussia. Kovno, Ossowetz, Novo-Georgiewsk, Grodno,—these are the main fortresses. This is the line that the Germans have attacked on frequent occasions, after Tannenberg, after the Mazurian Lakes, and are now attacking north of Novo-Georgiewsk and at Ossowetz.

To the south the line of the Kiev-Warsaw railway is covered by the Vistula from Warsaw to Ivangorod, which is a great fortress. But east of Ivangorod, between the Vistula and the Pinsk marsh, is a great unfortified gap, in the center of which is the city of Lublin. It was against this gap that the first Austrian offensive in August was directed, and it reached Lublin, only to beat a hasty retreat when the fall of Lemberg destroyed its flank guards.

Once Lemberg had fallen, the German and Austrian masses were turned north from Jaroslau, between the Bug and the Vistula rivers, to pierce this Lublin gap. Could they penetrate it, they would reach the Moscow railroad at the great Russian fortified camp at Brest-Litowsk, and this taken, Russian retreat from Warsaw would be well-nigh cut off and the only question would be whether the Russians could escape. Think of the Russian position in Poland as a nut held between the two jaws of a gigantic cracker, the one, Hindenburg's army, operating from the north, the other, Mackensen's, coming up from the south, and the situation is sufficiently explained.

But the advantages of the Russian position must now be stated. First of all there are

the railroads parallel and behind the front, which permit the despatch of troops to any threatened point. Then from Brest-Litowsk a number of lines radiate to the sides of the triangular position, enabling the Russians to hold a reserve in the central point and hurry it to any exposed point. In a word all the advantages of strategic railways possessed by the Germans in the Lodz campaign are now with the Russians.

In addition the Teutonic forces coming up from the south are without any railway transportation. Once they have left the Cracow-Lemberg railroad in Galicia they have to move north for nearly a hundred miles over a country destitute of railways and lacking in any hard roads. Thus all their ammunition and supplies have to be hauled by horse and automobile transport, after being transhipped in Galicia, while the Russians were able to munition and reinforce their troops by rail from their base.

In consequence the drive at the Lublin gaps has moved slowly, so slowly in fact that there seems to have been a lack of co-ordination between Austrian and German armies, one following the Vistula, the other, the Bug. Thus the Austrians were severely defeated north of Krasnik and some thirty miles south of Lublin. The Russians report the capture of 28,000 prisoners here and the temporary halt of the advance.

But not even Petrograd believes the halt more than temporary. Meantime on the north the Germans are assailing Ossowetz, have taken Przasnysz, north of Novo-Georgiewsk, fifty miles from Warsaw, and at the same time are pushing an advance beyond the Niemen toward Riga, that is, parallel with the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad and to the west of it. Patently this points to an ultimate enveloping attack upon the Petrograd line north of the barrier line of forts.

Though still in its opening stages, the new eastern campaign is in the minds of all military observers the most considerable and am-



THE 1000-MILE BATTLE-FRONT IN WESTERN RUSSIA

bitious in the war. It aims at a real decision. If the Germans succeed Russian armies will either be cut off and captured, or thrown back far into Russian territory. Russia, so the Germans plainly believe, lacks ammunition, lacks artillery, her armies are disorganized by defeat and it is possible to dispose of her for many months.

In a word, Germany is now attempting against Russia precisely the campaign which she undertook against France in August and September and lost by a narrow margin at the Marne. Too much importance cannot be attached to this campaign, for it represents what may prove to be the supreme German bid for complete success in the Great War. It is on the success of this gigantic offensive that German newspapers are basing their forecasts of peace in the fall, peace with German triumph.

VI. THE FRENCH OFFENSIVE

In my last review I dealt very summarily with the French operations about Arras. Later reports make it clear now that this was the most ambitious attempt yet made in the West to break the German lines. On a front of some twenty miles, but centering about the Lorette hills and the little villages of Carency, Ablain, Souchez, the

French, under General Foch, the great French strategist who won the Marne, threw a great army in, amounting to more than a quarter of a million men, so the Germans insist. In addition they gathered the greatest concentration of artillery yet seen in the West and opened their drive by a tremendous artillery attack.

The purpose of the attack was plain. Practically all the reserves of the Germans had been sent to the East. The army of the Crown Prince of Bavaria was barely adequate to defend the line before the city of Lens. There was a chance that the French might break this line and a break would expose the whole German position from the Somme and the Oise to the Argonne. Complete success would have compelled a German retreat to the Belgian frontier. Local success would put the French in control of the dominating ground west of Lens, the eastern end of the ridge that comes east from the Channel to the plain about Lens.

The local success the French won. At the high-water mark of their advance they cleared the Arras-Bethune highway, while they occupied permanently the heights which the Germans had held and fortified for many months. Near Arras they took the famous Labyrinth, which the Germans had worked on also for many months. But they were checked before they penetrated the main German line. The efforts of the British to the north, about La Bassée, to exercise helpful pressure failed with tremendous losses owing to the shortage of artillery. Souchez was retaken. The German line had held again as at St. Mihiel, in the Champagne, and at Ypres. The French had scored the greatest gain of the several offensives, "nibbles," but it had been merely local.

The losses in this fight were terrific. A German estimate of French casualties fixes them at 74,000. This may be excessive. But Americans will recall that in the advance from the Rapidan to Cold Harbor, Grant, in a shorter time and with a far smaller army, lost 55,000 men. As to the German loss, the French assert it was greater, the Germans that it was much less. But their commander in an interview printed in American newspapers conceded that it was heavy and the French reported a larger capture of men and guns than at any time since the Marne.

The bitterest part of the thing to the British was that had their army been able to co-operate there might have been a really considerable if not decisive success. But despite the enormous casualties,—the British loss had

now passed the quarter-million mark,—British troops were powerless to render efficient aid. To this chagrin there was presently added the consternation incident to learning that there were still less than half a million British troops on the continent. Kitchener's "million" had not materialized. It was still France who was doing the real work in the West.

In mid-July a German offensive broke out in the Argonne about Verdun, resulted in a material but not a decisive advance, and was identified by French writers as one more bid of the Crown Prince's army for the investment of Verdun. Confused fighting here, not yet ended, brought terrific losses, but late in July there was nothing to indicate that the Germans had made real progress. A similar attack around the St. Mihiel salient, possibly coördinated with the former and intended to complete the encirclement of the fortresses of Verdun from the South, was equally unsuccessful despite local gains.

A French success in Alsace, culminating in the capture of the town of Metzeral in the Fecht Valley west of Munster and on the road to Colmar, completes the western operations. The French success here was brilliant, but without more than local meaning. On the whole French effort was more successful than in many months, but,—perhaps mainly owing to British failure to assist,—brought no permanent results and entailed terrible casualties. The deadlock in the West was not broken and German reinforcements were presently sent to imperilled points, while German counter-offensives commanded French attention.

Once more Germany demonstrated that she could hold in the West while conducting a grand offensive in the East. Russia's allies failed utterly to relieve her while she faced a crisis that daily grew more terrible in possibilities.

VII. SOUTHWEST AFRICA

In July the progress of the Anglo-French campaign at the Dardanelles was small, but for the first time gave some promise of ultimate success. A slight but unmistakable weakening of Turkish resistance was recorded in trenches gained and prisoners captured. But the real circumstance was the action of Rumania in holding up the transport of ammunition from Germany to her Turkish ally. The protest of the German press, the frank recognition that this action promised the fall of Constantinople,—these were sig-

nificant circumstances, while the world accepted it as a promise of Rumanian imitation of the Italian example.

By contrast the first official report of General Ian Hamilton revealed an initial bungling and slaughter that contributed to the general depression in Britain. Fourteen thousand men killed, wounded, and captured in the landing operations, a total casualty list of nearly 43,000 for the British alone, a loss far exceeding that of the Crimean War, was an evidence of the cost of an expedition which has been frankly sent too late, if it should have been sent at all, and was still, despite Winston Churchill's boastful declarations, far from real triumph.

With the progress of events in the Near East I shall deal in the next monthly review. Here and now, however, it is necessary to note an event which bore eloquent testimony to the helplessness of Germany beyond the seas and the complete self-delusion of German dreams that British colonies would rise to resist the mother country and, particularly in South Africa, that British dominion would cease. The surrender of the last armed force of Germans in German Southwest Africa in the third week of July to an expeditionary army led by Botha, the famous Boer general, laid at rest all these hopes. Indeed, in acknowledging the British official congratulations sent on his success, Botha expressed his hope soon to lead his victorious command to European victories.

The German colony of Southwest Africa was the first and most expensive of German colonial experiments. It had cost a long native war, thousands of lives, and millions of marks. In the German scheme it was the foundation of a colonial edifice which was to extend to the Congo and the headwaters of the Niger and include all of the Union of South Africa. It had been the base of German intrigue in the Union of South Africa, and, in the early rising of De Wet and Beyers, there seemed promise that German hope might be realized and South Africa lost to the British Empire. But Botha had prevented all this. All save a few of his old-time Boer comrades followed him. The rebellion was crushed, a strong army was raised and sent under his command across the Orange River, and it became thereafter only a question of time until the feeble German forces should succumb.

In this struggle Germany lost a colony of more than 320,000 square miles,—half again as large as the Fatherland. Since it was conquered by colonial troops there could be no possibility that it would be regained. As our own American colonials would not consent to the return of Quebec to France, once it was captured and the peril of border warfare abolished, the colonials of the Union of South Africa are certain to insist that this danger to their peace and safety remain abolished. Precisely in the same way the Australians had taken New Guinea and Samoa, the islands of the Southern Pacific. Japan had taken Kiao-chau. More than half a million square miles are thus permanently lost to Germany.

In addition Togoland had been seized in the opening days of the war and July brought news of the success of Anglo-French forces in beating down the remnant of German resistance in that Kamerun which had been expanded at French expense in the Agadir time. Only German East Africa remained, the best colony, but at the mercy of any subsequent attack of a South African expedition. And this East Africa is the sole barrier to the realization of Cecil Rhodes' dream of the "all-red" Cape-to-Cairo.

Once more, as in the wars of Louis XIV and Napoleon, Great Britain was successfully sweeping the world clear of the colonies of her rival. She was answering the challenge of the Kaiser, who had said that German future was on the seas. Even the Dardanelles operation was in fact an attack upon a German colony, for to this estate Turkey had now been reduced. The long dispute over the Bagdad railroad was finding fruit in a British expedition pushing north up the Euphrates toward Bagdad. German influence, political and commercial, in Turkey as well as elsewhere, was the target of British effort.

It will be recalled that in her long fight with France England, with her continental allies, never succeeded in doing more than limiting French advance in Europe, but, while France at home survived the strife intact, her two empires of America and India were lost. The parallel is sufficiently good to attract attention to the latest colonial war, the newest manifestation of British world vision and policy.



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

IN RECONQUERED GALICIA: AUSTRIANS TRANSPORTING BALED HAY FROM THE FIELDS TO SUPPLY DEPOTS



Photograph by the American Press Association

WARSAW, THE PRINCIPAL OBJECTIVE OF THE GREAT GERMAN DRIVE IN THE EAST

(Situated on the left bank of the Vistula River, the historic capital of Poland is famed not only for its natural advantages, commerce, and learning, but with its Alexander citadel, and Sliwicki fort defending the bridge across the river, it is also the chief military stronghold of Poland. The city has been successively taken by Sweden, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, occupied by Napoleon's troops in 1806, and captured by Russia in 1813. In the century since, Warsaw has often been the scene of violent political disturbances, insurrection, riots, and bloodshed)

VENIZELOS: PILOT OF GREATER GREECE

BY T. LOTHROP STODDARD

THE resounding triumph of Mr. Venizelos in the Greek elections of mid-June and his approaching resumption of that leadership of the Greek nation which he laid down after his disagreement with King Constantine in early March, focus attention upon one of the most interesting figures of our time. Indeed, Mr. Venizelos has been in the public eye for a number of years. The world is still amazed at the astounding national revival which took place in Greece during the three short years from 1909 to 1912, and all competent observers agree that for this almost miraculous transformation Venizelos is primarily responsible.

In the autumn of 1909 Greece seemed literally doomed. The disastrous Turkish war of 1897 had apparently done nothing to rouse the nation from its chaotic impotence. Year by year the meaningless squabbles of corrupt politicians had grown fiercer, and party life was becoming more and more a sordid struggle for place and preferment. Every branch of the administration was honeycombed with corruption and nepotism. The army was patently degenerating, if not absolutely disintegrating. Foreign policy was conducted with a combination of bombast and crass ineptitude which had just drawn down from Turkey a stinging rebuff to which disorganized, semi-bankrupt Hellas could only bow. The popular fury at this crowning humiliation led to an uprising of the army which, under the title of the "Military League," ousted the government of the day and took control of the country.

To Western observers, friends and foes alike, this seemed the beginning of the end. In face of renascent Slavdom and a rejuvenated Ottoman Empire, (the "Young

Turks" being then high in the world's favor), Greece opposed,—pronunciamentos! It mattered not that the program of the Military League was free from professional egoism and denoted a general attack on corruption, sinecures, softness, weakness in every department of public life; that the creed of these new Spartans was "Deeds, not Words." To the Western world, especially

the "Liberal" philhellenic world, an army revolt meant jingo militarism. Accordingly, the gloomiest prophecies prevailed, and Greece, likened to a Central American republic, was sadly mourned as lost beyond redemption.

Of course it was quite true that Hellas was facing the supreme crisis of her destiny. Liberal critics were undoubtedly too pessimistic, for the Greece of 1909 was in such an inextricable tangle that the sword alone could cut the Gordian knot. Nevertheless, the remedy was an heroic one, which would either kill or cure, and which would certainly kill if the cure were long delayed. For a modern State the prolonged rule of an anonymous, unconstitutional military camarilla is bound to be fatal; no matter how high-minded the original leaders may be it will soon generate a spirit of fanatic chauvinism or brutal tyranny which must lead straight to ruin. The stern patriotism of the Military League may have been necessary to break the spell of factious corruption, but unless it speedily effaced itself before the constructive civilian statesman who should canalize the rising tide within safe constitutional bounds, this tide would become a raging, destructive flood which would leave the land worse off than before. Fortunately the patriotic heads of the Military League



MR. ELEUTHERIOS VENIZELOS

felt the necessity and saw the man. This man was Mr. Venizelos.

FROM CRETE TO ATHENS

Eleutherios Venizelos was born on the Island of Crete in the year 1864, of an ancient family which, according to tradition, descended from the medieval Dukes of Athens. Equipped with a good education gained in both Greece and Switzerland, Venizelos presently plunged into the maelstrom of Cretan politics, and by the beginning of the present century he was recognized as the strong man of the "Great Greek Island," both in peace and war. It was, therefore, with a high-established reputation that he arrived at Athens towards the close of 1909, invited thither not only by the Military League but also by the veteran politician Dragoumis, the solidest and least compromised figure of Greek parliamentary life at that time.

A NEW PILOT FOR THE NATION

The strong hand of the new pilot was instantly manifest in the course of the ship of state. Nominally Dragoumis was at the helm, but everyone knew who was laying the course, and an immense sigh of relief and confidence rose from the harassed country. Difficulties previously threatening were smoothed away as if by magic. Factions politicians were either reconciled or sharply brought to book. The Military League (afforded a graceful exit from the political arena) dissolved, its ablest leaders being taken into the cabinet. The faulty constitution was amended, especially by the insertion of a clause enabling the employment of foreigners in the public service, thus making possible the turning over of the army and navy to French and English expert commissions for thoroughgoing reform, while these same reforms were in turn made materially realizable by large European loans easily floated now that Western bankers saw that Greece was in safe hands and on the road to recovery.

HIS LEADERSHIP ACCEPTED

Most significant of all, however, was the hold acquired by Venizelos over the Greek people. The Athenian democracy has not changed much since Cleon's day, and before Venizelos no Minister had dared pit his resolve against its tumultuous disapproval. But the Athenians now found themselves confronted with an iron will unshaken by the loudest shoutings of the mob. Venizelos told

the people the truth; told it in the fewest possible words and frequently with the greatest possible unpalatability. If he felt a demand to be impossible he said No, and that no was final. The people had their choice of bowing to Venizelos' decision or getting rid of Venizelos. Many superficial observers predicted the latter alternative. They were wrong. Venizelos was the incarnation of all that Young Greece had longed and striven to be, and when the Greek people listened to his terse, stern truths, stripped of all the rhetoric and sophistry with which they had been so long beguiled, they knew that he was right, that he was the leader of their dreams. Wherefor, when Venizelos spoke the untamed Athenian democracy was silent, and the more unpleasant things he said the more it worshipped him,—because it knew that he spoke the truth. The Cretan deputies, Venizelos' own folk, tried to force their way into the national assembly. It was the dream of every Hellene, notably of Venizelos himself, that those Cretans should sit there. But at the moment it meant a Turkish war and defiance to the will of Europe. Venizelos drew a cordon of troops about the House, repulsed the Cretans, deported them from the country. And Athens applauded.

BRAVE SHOWING MADE BY GREECE IN FIRST BALKAN WAR

Then, for nearly three years, Greece dropped out of sight. The great world was far too engrossed with giant international crises and local turmoils to heed what was passing in the little capital beside the Egean Sea. Suddenly, in the autumn of 1912, the Balkan tempest broke. How would the Christian States conduct themselves in their supreme struggle with the hereditary Turkish enemy? That Bulgaria would do well everybody agreed, but concerning Greece many even in philhellenic circles, remembering 1897 and 1909, had their serious doubts. A few weeks later these forebodings were entirely dispelled. Three short years of Venizelos had resulted in a New Greece. The tragi-comedy of 1897 was not repeated. The French and English experts had done their work well, and the Hellenic forces were transformed in both spirit and performance. Of course they did not accomplish the prodigies which enthusiasts would have us believe, but, in both the Balkan wars, the Greek armies showed a steady, workmanlike efficiency and reaped a harvest of successes which left Greece in many respects the leading Balkan State.

AN INTERNATIONAL FIGURE

Astonished at these unexpected events, the world asked the explanation, and when Greece immediately answered, "Venizelos," all eyes were turned upon this new man. He bore the scrutiny well. At the London Conference of 1912 his diplomatic insight won golden opinions from all observers, and at the Peace Conference of Bucharest at the close of the Second Balkan War he displayed a statesmanlike moderation which, if acted upon, might have resulted in better Greco-Bulgarian relations to-day. During the Greco-Turkish crisis which threatened the Near East with a fresh conflagration during the greater part of the year 1914, Venizelos showed a happy combination of tact and firmness which ended by averting a Greco-Turkish clash for the moment and for what then appeared to be the near future.

THE GREAT WAR REACHES THE NEAR EAST

But scarcely had this storm-cloud been dissipated when the mighty tempest of the Great War broke over Europe and presently spread to the Near East with Turkey's entrance into the struggle at the beginning of November, 1914. All those problems which Venizelos had so fondly hoped were long adjourned rose quivering for solution, and the little Balkan peoples, exhausted by their recent conflicts though they were, saw their destinies flung into the boiling cauldron of a world-war. Awed by this death-grapple of titans beside whom they themselves were but pygmies, the Balkan peoples sat watching the dread *melée*, eager to share in the rich spoils of victory, yet chilled by the knowledge that a single miscalculation might mean national death.

It was this inability to pick the winner which kept Balkan public opinion fairly solid for present neutrality during the first six months of the Great War. But, toward the close of winter, this neutrality was subjected to an unparalleled strain. In mid-February a great Anglo-French fleet, the mightiest armada of modern times, attacked the Dardanelles. This was touching the very heart of the Eastern question. If the Straits were forced and Constantinople fell, the whole vast Ottoman heritage would lie at the Allies' feet, to be disposed of at their good will and pleasure. Things looked very well for the Allies during those February days, when Dardanelles forts crumbled beneath the rain of dreadnought shells and Russia's hosts breasted the Carpathian mountain crests and looked down upon the plains of Hungary. Safety

and self-interest alike seemed beckoning along the same path, and the Balkan States accordingly stirred with pro-Ally sentiment from end to end.

GREECE AND THE ALLIES

This was particularly true of Greece. On one member of the Grand Alliance, to be sure, Greece could hardly look with favor. Russia, the champion of Slavism, has long been Hellenism's covert foe, and her open determination to get Constantinople must have awakened very mixed emotions in Hellenic breasts regarding the Allied assaults upon the Dardanelles. For Constantinople, with its great Greek population, is the crux of that imperial dream compounded of the glories of ancient Hellas and the medieval Byzantine Empire known as the "Great Idea";—the welding of the Balkans and Asia Minor into a Greek Empire which shall win the whole Near East for Hellenism.

Nevertheless, however menacing Russia might be for the realization of Hellenism's ultimate aspirations, fear of the Muscovite and sorrow over Constantinople were in most Greek hearts counteracted by sympathy for the other Allied Powers and apprehension at the prospects of a triumph of the Allies' enemies. To France and England Greece was bound by many ties of sympathy and gratitude. These two nations had been the prime architects of Greece's national existence and had always shown themselves her friends. On the other side, Germany alone had proven herself well disposed to Greece. Austria had long coveted as the goal of her eastern "Drang" Salonika, the apple of the Greek eye, while Turkey, the hereditary foe, menaced Hellenism throughout Asia Minor with destruction. Lastly, Bulgaria, burning for revenge since the late Balkan wars, and inconsolable over lost Macedonia, stood in the closest relations to both the Teutonic Powers and the Ottoman Empire.

Such was the situation when high temptation came to Greece. As the February days sped by it became increasingly clear that the Allied armada could not batter a way through the Dardanelles; that an army was needed to supplement the work of the dreadnoughts and to consolidate their gains. Now Allied troops were none too plenty in the Levant and could ill be spared from the battlefields of the West. Accordingly, Allied diplomacy cast about to remedy this defect by bringing new recruits to their banner. And Greece seemed the most likely possibility. Next door to the scene of action, bitterly hostile to Turkey and well disposed towards

England and France, her sympathies were primed by her self-interest. For the whole Egean shore of Asia Minor is thickly peopled by Greeks eager to follow their island neighbors into union with the Hellenic Kingdom. Such was the bait held out to Greece by Allied diplomacy, and Venizelos promptly accepted on principle, offering Greek armies for the Dardanelles campaign in return for an Allied promise of a broad slice of Asia Minor stretching from a point just south of the Dardanelles right athwart Asia Minor to the southern coast on the Mediterranean Sea. This area would double the size of the existing Kingdom of Greece and, under good government, would ultimately support several million inhabitants.

The prospect was for Greek patriots an intoxicating one, but it was open to two serious objections. The first of these was the attitude of Bulgaria. As a result of the Second Balkan War Greece and Serbia seized Macedonia and divided it between them. But Macedonia is, to Bulgaria, the sum of all her hopes. For it she fought the Balkan wars, deprived of it she nurses an unappeasable grief, an unslaked thirst for revenge. Greece and Serbia know this well and ever since the late Balkan conflict they have been in close alliance against Bulgaria, mutually guaranteeing their respective Macedonian territories and promising not to cede any part of Macedonia to Bulgaria without common consent. So long as peace reigned in the Balkans this afforded them ample security, but since the outbreak of the Great War Serbia had been worn to a shadow in her struggle against Austria, and Greece was thus left alone in face of the implacable Bulgarian foe. Accordingly, when the Greek General Staff was informed of Venizelos' negotiations with the Allied Powers, it declared unanimously that a Dardanelles campaign was impossible unless Bulgaria's quiescence was first secured; that the whole Greek army was none too strong for the task of guarding Macedonia from Bulgarian invasion and that to divert a large part of it overseas would be to court disaster.

NEGOTIATIONS WITH BULGARIA

Venizelos thereupon approached Bulgaria, and was told that Bulgaria would remain neutral if Serbia would cede most of her Macedonian conquests while Greece should yield those rich Egean coast districts Kavalla, Drama, and Serrès which stretch so provokingly eastwards, cutting off the Bulgarian hinterland from the sea. This was,

of course, a price far above what Greece was willing to pay; nevertheless, Venizelos attempted to compromise, agreeing to waive the Greek veto on Serbian cessions of Macedonian territory as the reward of Bulgarian neutrality, and further offering to cede Kavalla and Drama if Bulgaria would join Greece in a common attack upon the Ottoman Empire. Here, however, Venizelos encountered a double obstacle. Bulgaria absolutely refused to consider these terms, while Greece itself pronounced emphatically against any Macedonian cessions to Bulgaria whatever. The passions roused by the late Balkan wars are shared by all the Balkan peoples, and if the Bulgarian hates the Greek, the Greek hates the Bulgarian with equal intensity. An English student of Balkan affairs did not exaggerate when he recently wrote, "the hatred of the Greek for the Bulgar is something phenomenal, surpassing in bitterness all other race-hatreds in the world."

Venizelos accordingly found that most of his colleagues, including Mr. Gounaris, (after Venizelos Greece's most respected statesman), were quite unfavorable to his proposed sacrifices. As to the trend of Greek public opinion on the matter, that was plain enough. Professor Andreades, recognized throughout the world as Greece's most brilliant savant, undoubtedly voiced the feelings of the vast majority of his compatriots when he passionately condemned all plans of territorial concession to Bulgaria. "No compromises of the kind suggested," he writes, "can be acceptable to Greece. It would result in an impossible frontier, and a fresh war for the possession of Salonika would only be a matter of a few years." He expressly condemns the acquisition of Asiatic territories at the price of Macedonian sacrifices. "Greece could only accept it (Asia Minor) on one condition,—not to be forced to give up her strategic frontier bordering on Bulgaria; otherwise she will be at the mercy of a coalition of Bulgaria and the Power holding the interior of Asia Minor,—it would be to offer poison in a golden cup."

GREEK VERSUS ITALIAN AMBITIONS

Furthermore, serious though the Bulgarian difficulty might be, it was not the only obstacle to the realization of Greece's Asiatic dream. The Allies had many irons in the diplomatic fire, and at the very moment when they were angling for Greek support they were no less assiduously courting Italy. Now it was obvious that if Italy was to brave her

internal difficulties and flout her traditional Teutonic allies she would have to be paid a high price. And this looked bad for Greece, since, throughout the Near East, Hellenic and Italian ambitions were clashing in the most irreconcilable fashion. In Southern Albania, (Epirus), Italy and Greece had already nearly come to blows, yet even this was but a small matter beside their rivalry in the Egean and the east Mediterranean basin. For, if Greece considers herself the heir of both ancient Hellas and the medieval Byzantine Empire, Italy holds herself the heir of Rome, once master of the entire Near East, and of the Italian maritime republics Venice and Genoa, predominant in Levantine waters throughout a considerable portion of the Middle Ages. These old claims had been vigorously asserted at the time of the Italo-Turkish War, when early in 1912 Italy seized Rhodes and the "Dodekanese," the island chain stretching a third of the way across the Egean Sea. All attempts of European diplomacy to oust Italy from this Levantine foothold have been failures, and Italy has shown by her strenuous attitude that she regards these islands as mere stepping-stones to southwest Asia Minor, which she has openly earmarked for her own. But this is the very region which Greece has also earmarked for her own, and she regards the prospect of an Italian sphere in Asia Minor with downright terror. Strategic and commercial considerations aside, were Italy to divert thither a portion of the 600,000 emigrants who yearly leave her shores, she might turn southwest Asia Minor into a New Italy, and these historic Greek lands would be thus lost to Hellenism forever.

Under these circumstances Greek disquietude can be imagined when the Allied Powers declined to accept Venizelos' proposal of a definitely delimited Greek sphere in Asia Minor, and would make only vague promises of "liberal compensation." To many Greek statesmen this could only mean that the Allies were holding out the same bait to Greece and Italy in order to get them both without raising troublesome partition problems. If such were indeed the case these men felt that it would be madness for Greece, on the faith of mere general promises, to exhaust her rather slender strength on Turkish and possibly Bulgarian campaigns, to emerge from the struggle, thoroughly wearied, in face of her mighty Italian rival. Venizelos, however, thought otherwise. He believed that Greece should give herself unreservedly to the Allies, should send the re-

quired army to the Dardanelles even at the risk of Bulgarian attack, and should trust entirely to Anglo-French gratitude. Faced by this sharp difference of opinion, King Constantine summoned a Royal Council, and by this body the matter was threshed out in the opening days of March. The Council decided against Venizelos' project, the King (who evidently shared the Council's opinion) informed his Premier of his adverse decision, and Venizelos thereupon resigned.

Whether Venizelos was right or wrong, one thing is clear; the fact that the Greek General Staff and so many of the Greek statesmen, including Mr. Gounaris, were against Venizelos' project in toto, while Greek public opinion was opposed to that conciliation of Bulgaria which was so important a part of it, should dispel the absurd assertions of the Anglo-French press that King Constantine defied his councillors and his people at the imperious behest of his Queen, the sister of the German Emperor.

RETURN TO POWER,—WILL GREECE "GO IN"?

Venizelos' triumph in the June elections and the certainty that in the new Greek parliament assembling on July 20 his supporters would be in a majority, assuring his return to power, has led many to suppose that this will mean the immediate entrance of Greece into the war on the Allies' side. But, while this is very possible, it is by no means certain. Much has happened since last February. The Allies' general outlook is by no means so bright as it was then; Bulgaria still nurses her wrath; most important of all from the Greek standpoint, Italy has "gone in." What have the Allies promised Italy? That is the vital question for Greece. The Italian occupation of Avlona and other points in southern Albania are painful enough to Greek susceptibilities; if Greece discovers that the Allies have promised Italy any part of southwest Asia Minor it is decidedly unlikely that the Greek people would be willing to sacrifice a single Greek soldier in the Allied cause. The recent triumph of Venizelos at the polls should be interpreted as a vote of confidence in his leadership rather than as a distinct mandate for war under any circumstances. The Greek people feel that the man who plucked them from the nadir of discomfiture and set their feet upon the pathway of success is the man to guide the country in this, its supreme hour. On this point it is significant to note that Venizelos himself has publicly stated that conditions have

changed since February, and that what was then possible may no longer be feasible to-day.

A PATRIOTIC PEOPLE

In closing this sketch of Greece's strong man we must not forget that, great and successful as has been his work, it is the Greek nation which has made that work possible. No one, however gifted, can create something out of nothing. That Venizelos, in less than three years, could transform the apparently hopeless Greece of 1897 and 1909 into

the Greece of the Balkan Wars shows that the heart of Hellas was always sound. The Greeks have some serious failings but they have also certain high virtues, notably an ardent patriotism, rising to the dignity of a religion, and, like all real faith, this ennobles and purifies. This patriotism, joined to a quick understanding, brings it to pass that when the true interests of Hellas are clearly set forth the Greek people devote themselves thereto with such concentrated fervor as to accomplish seeming marvels in a very short space of time.

ENVER PASHA: TURKISH PATRIOT

BY LEWIS R. FREEMAN

IN the year that elapsed before the outbreak of the present war there is little doubt that Enver Bey,—now Enver Pasha,—had an almost entirely free hand in Turkish military affairs, and to this, as much as to the assistance of the German officers who were called upon in ever-increasing numbers, is unquestionably due the magnificent resistance the Turks have offered the allied fleet and armies in the Dardanelles operations. Here, it is true, Enver is fighting with his back against the wall. If the Balkan states continue to hold off, the fall of Constantinople may be deferred for a considerable time, even with such help as Italy may bring to the Allies in this theater; but with Rumania and Bulgaria,—or even either one of them,—taking the Turks in the flank, the end must come quickly.

But this will not necessarily be the end of the indomitable Enver, especially if the spirit of his people is not crushed by the disaster. The way will be open to the last for a retreat into Asia Minor, where the country is favorable for him to back up against the wall many times before he is finally forced down into those deserts beyond the Taurus, where his Ottoman progenitors were cradled, and where the radicals among the Allies profess to hold that the Turk must ultimately be made to return.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S TRIBUTE

I had heard the name of Enver Bey spoken many times in Syria in the winter of 1912 before finding anyone who could tell

me much about him. Enlightenment finally came through the British Vice-Consul at Beirut, whom I met at the tennis club one afternoon.

"He is one of my best friends," said that young official after I had been introduced to him by Dr. Bliss, of the American College, as one interested in Enver Bey. "He is without a single exception I can recall offhand, save possibly Lord Kitchener, the most forceful individual I have ever known, and for sheer magnetic attraction stands absolutely alone in my experience. In any other country besides Turkey,—in England, Germany, or the United States,—he could not fail of a great career. Here, the higher a man climbs the surer he is to be marked for a fall, and Enver Bey has been in danger of assassination ever since his progressive spirit began to manifest itself in his early teens. Some day,—it may be tomorrow or it may not be for a number of years,—the agents of his enemies will kill him, and when they do there will pass the sincerest patriot that Turkey has known since the days of Midhat Pasha."

HIS GERMAN AFFILIATIONS

The Vice-Consul then related the circumstances of his first meeting with Enver Bey when he came upon the Turkish commander in the act of giving battle single-handed to a round half-dozen of drunken bashi-bazouks whom he had surprised looting an Armenian bazaar in Stamboul during the Young Turk revolution of 1908. The Vice-

Consul was one of the very few Englishmen who in those days could truthfully call Enver Bey his friend. The Turk had more friends, of course, among the Germans. It was, indeed, an open secret from the time that Great Britain and France allowed Italy to go ahead in Tripoli that Enver Bey stood definitely committed to active coöperation with Germany, both in domestic and international affairs. This was partly due to the fact that he received his military training in Berlin and frankly admired the German military system, and partly to the fact that after Britain, in permitting Italy to have a free hand in Tripoli, apparently abandoned her policy and traditional friendship toward Turkey, it was necessary for Turkey to choose between Germany and Russia as a prop, and doubtless Enver believed that the mailed fist of the Kaiser would offer less menace and more protection than the unsheathed paw of the Russian bear.

A TRUE PATRIOT

Enver's forceful personality, his magnetism, his capacity for leadership made him at thirty a political power in Turkey, and a military dictator at an age when most European officers have not attained their captaincies. His is the deep, abiding faith in the mystic, in the soundness of the things for which he stands and, sincere patriot that he is, his plans, his dreams are all to one end,—the regeneration of Turkey.

More of Enver Bey,—of his marvelous swordsmanship, his fluency as a linguist, of the almost ascetic simplicity of his physical life, of his strange combination of practicality and idealism of the mystic and the man of action; of the way in which he had always exercised his influence and authority, often at the expense of discipline, quite out of proportion to his official or military rank,—I heard from the British Consul, and on the morning that he came to see me off on the Damascus train on my circuitous journey to Palestine and Egypt, he enjoined me especially to miss no chance of meeting the brilliant young Turkish patriot in the event that I was able to carry out a plan I had formed of penetrating through to the Turco-Arabic forces in the Tripolitan hinterland.

A MAGNETIC PERSONALITY

It was, I think, K——'s card of introduction, coupled with the fact that I brought late news of the doings on the Tripolitan Egyptian frontier and in the deserts beyond



Medem Photo Service

ENVER PASHA

Damascus and Aleppo, that finally won me an interview with Enver Bey at a time when men with more weighty European credentials than mine were being put off from day to day. I found him all that K—— had said,—small in stature, but remarkably well set up, strikingly handsome, and with an indefinable, but compelling, magnetism, which made itself felt through the curtain of dignified reserve which masks the real Enver. At a casual meeting, this reserve, with a certain characteristic detachment of manner, might well impress one as the young patriot's dominating trait, and such, indeed, was my feeling until a chance remark I made regarding the way in which the Arabs of Mesopotamia and Syria were clamoring to be led to Tripoli,—how several had even worked their way across to Aleppo with my caravan,—brought a warm flush of color to his cheeks and a glint of moisture to his eyes.

"Ah, my brave Arabs!" he cried affectionately. "If I could only gather them in from all their desert ways, and arm them properly, then,"—and he waved his hand contemptuously toward the hills beyond which lay the Italian outposts,—“these

would be swept away like sand before the *sirocco*. But I fear it cannot be. They are drifting in by tens and scores, where I need hundreds and thousands."

Much that we spoke of was germane only to the events of the moment, and I am, therefore, setting down only that which was illuminative of Enver himself or of happenings which have followed.

WHY A GERMAN ALLIANCE WAS PREFERRED

"The plans of all of the powers have always been entirely selfish as far as Turkey was concerned," said Enver, with a bitterness not incomprehensible under the circumstances. "For years Russia has coveted Constantinople, to say nothing of the rest of Turkey along the Black Sea and south of the Caucasus, and Britain has endeavored to keep us just strong enough to prevent Russia from realizing these ambitions. (It was an Englishman who first called us the 'Sick Man.')

Finally came the Kaiser with his scheme of a chain of German-controlled states from the Baltic to the Persian Gulf, and for the success of this plan a strong, not a weak, Turkey is a *sine qua non*. Russia would wipe us off the map, England would keep us weak, Germany would make us strong. All selfish motives on the face of them, no doubt, but,—can you wonder which alternative is the least repugnant to us Turks, especially to us Young Turks, who have done our best to avoid being enmeshed in the nets of British and Russian diplomacy and intrigue which held helpless our predecessors? I think I will not need to say more to answer your question as to why it was Germany obtained the Bagdad railway concession, why the Hedjaz line was built by Germans, and why the Germans are recasting our military establishment."

A REAL TURKISH NATIONALITY

"Do you care to speak of your so-called Turkish reform program?" I asked as a final question, warned by the Sheiks and officers gathering under the flap of the reception tent that a conference was about to be held. Enver hesitated for a moment, and then, his eyes lighting with the enthusiasm kindled by the project which I have since learned was the one nearest his heart, rose to his feet and spoke briefly and to the point, the meantime grasping my hand in a warm grip of farewell.

"Real Turkish unification is my dearest wish, and any international political ar-

rangement which will leave me a free hand to work for that, I will subscribe to. Turkey contains a great many Christians as well as Mohammedans. The latter I would regenerate from within, not from without. The West has little that we need save battleships and shrapnels, and if it would leave us alone we would not need even these. Nor can the Occident give us anything better to follow than the precepts of the Koran. For us Mohammedans, I would purify the old faith, not bring in a new one,—there are close to a score of them, as you know. But for our Christian peoples, I would let them follow their own faith in peace and security, something they have not always been able to do in the past. I would offer them everything that England, or Greece or France could,—more than Russia ever would,—and by this means I would make them Turkish subjects in fact as well as in name. Great Britain, a Christian power, has made good subjects of the Mohammedans in India; why shall not Turkey, a Mohammedan power, make good subjects of the Christians in the Ottoman Empire? A real Turkish nation is my dream; a nation able at last to stand upon its own legs."

And for just this, Enver had been fighting, with his back against the wall, for ten years; for just this he continued to fight, with his back against the wall, for two years more; and for just this he is fighting, still with his back against the wall, to-day. Keeping up for several months longer his hopeless fight at the head of his devoted Arabs in Tripoli, he was called home to take up another hopeless fight after the Turkish army,—half fed and half ammunition,—had been swept by the victorious Bulgars down to the Tchatalja lines, at the very door of Constantinople. Overridden and over-ruled in council, the impetuous young patriot, goaded to desperation by the incompetence and corruption of the régime in power, struck down the Minister of War and leapt himself into the emptied saddle. It was too late, as it proved, to drive back the Bulgars,—now reinforced by the Greeks and Serbs,—although the campaign he launched to this end was most ably conducted. A few months later, however, when the Balkan allies fell out and Greece and Serbia attacked Bulgaria, the watchful Enver was ready with a force which lost no time in recapturing Adrianople and restoring to Turkey a not inconsiderable portion of the territory which had just been wrested from her by the allies.



HAMPTON SCHOOL EXHIBIT AT THE NEGRO EXPOSITION

THE NEGRO EXPOSITION AT RICHMOND

BY PLUMMER F. JONES

THE Negro Historical and Industrial Exposition which was held in the city of Richmond, Virginia, from July 5 to July 27, inclusive, was in a number of ways interesting and encouraging, but in two respects was altogether preëminent. The first of these was the proof which was exhibited by the Exposition of the cordial relations and complete understanding which exist at the present time between the two races in the South; and the other the indisputable evidence of the natural ability of the negro to achieve things worth while when living and working under the proper environment.

As an index of the relations existing between the races, the Exposition must have proved astounding to those visitors and students of social economy who have not lived or traveled during recent years in the South, and who have not had an opportunity to observe the understanding and coöperation which has grown up, particularly within the past one or two decades, in all parts of the country where the negro is in evidence. As distinct proof of this, nothing could have surpassed the manner in which the Exposition, both in its beginnings and its progress, was supported by the white people of Virginia

and the South. It was largely through the efforts of the leading white citizens of the South that the Exposition was made possible. Then again, the newspapers of Richmond were indefatigable in their efforts to create interest in the Exposition, and devoted columns of space to bring the value of the enterprise prominently before the people, urging the support of white people in strong articles on their editorial pages.

It is interesting, in this connection, to note the manner in which the Exposition had its inception. A year or more ago the Negro Historical and Industrial Association was formed in Richmond, and was incorporated under the laws of the State for the purpose, among other things, of holding an industrial exposition which should show the progress of the negro during the past fifty years. Giles B. Jackson, a well-known negro lawyer of Richmond, was made president, and he immediately began a campaign for the raising of funds. United States Senator Thomas S. Martin began the fight for an appropriation by Congress, and with the aid of other Senators and Representatives, succeeded in getting the sum of \$55,000 from the Government. Later the city of Rich-



EXHIBIT OF WOMEN'S WORK

mond appropriated \$5000, and the State of New York appropriated the sum of \$7500 for purposes of showing the progress of the negro in that State. These sums, together with private contributions, were used for the purpose of collecting exhibits from all parts of the country. Shortly after the announcements were made exhibits began to flow in from all parts of the South and North,—from industrial schools, county school systems, industrial associations, business organizations, firms, and private individuals.

In June of this year Governor Henry Stuart, a kinsman of General Jeb Stuart, who was killed at Yellow Tavern, a few miles from the Exposition grounds, about fifty-two years ago, issued a proclamation calling earnestly upon the people of the State to support the Exposition in every possible way. Said he in part: "The friendly relations between the white people and the negroes of Virginia is a source of gratification to both races, and should be recognized as an important asset in our civil, political, and industrial life."

On July 1 President Wilson, a Virginian, who fifty years ago was a lad in the old Presbyterian manse at Staunton, Virginia, issued a proclamation saying among other things that "the action of Congress in this matter [the appropriation] indicates very

happily the desire of the nation, as well as of the people of Virginia, to encourage the negro in his efforts to solve his industrial problem." And he urges the entire nation to lend every facility to the leaders in the enterprise.

On July 5 the Exposition was opened in the State Fair Grounds just outside the city, the buildings of the Fair Association being used for the exhibits. At the opening Mayor Ainslie, of Richmond, delivered an address and President Giles Jackson made a powerful and characteristic speech, reviewing the work which had been done and emphasizing the importance of the Exposition.

THE EXHIBITS

The exhibits, the product of negro hands and negro brains, comprised by far the most important feature of the Exposition. These exhibits, shown in the main buildings, were hardly less than marvellous in their wide range and their simplicity and usefulness. The exhibitors were private individuals, negro firms, negro manufacturers, negro mechanics, negro associations, negro poets, negro painters, and all kinds and grades of negro schools.

The exhibits consisted of a varied line of useful things, from uplift poems on picture post-cards and oil paintings to plows, and lines of manufactured goods, and sets of



EXHIBIT OF THE "HENRICO METHOD" OF COLORED SCHOOL INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

harness, and beautiful fancy work, and every kind and grade of household furniture.

As might be expected, the exhibit from students of the Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute was one of the most complete and noteworthy. Here was to be found almost every conceivable kind of furniture and tool, fancy work, and the product of women. In the midst of this exhibit was a handsome brass locomotive, all parts complete, in running order, built entirely by Joseph Hall, a negro of Portsmouth, Virginia.

The great industrial school on James River, known as Rock Castle, exhibited very fine specimens of wagons, buggies, carts, farming tools, and furniture of all kinds, as well as much woman's work, including all kinds of sewing and canning. All the work was done by young colored men and women under their own instructors.

Other schools which exhibited articles of marked interest were the Virginia Normal School, of Petersburg; the Colored Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute, of Raleigh, N. C.; Shaw University, Raleigh; Vorhees College, South Carolina; the Virginia Deaf and Dumb School, Newport News; the St. Paul School, of Lawrenceville; and the colored high school of Richmond.

A markedly fine exhibit came from Wash-

ington County and Hagerstown in Maryland; and Henrico County, Virginia, whose Superintendent of Schools, Jackson Davis, was the originator of the "Henrico Method," had a full exhibit at the Exposition. The "Henrico Method" provides a skilled and highly educated colored instructor who travels from rural school to rural school, teaching teachers and children alike all kinds of industrial work, and in summer provides for neighborhood teachers of canning, gardening, and sewing.

The New York exhibit was a noteworthy one, and occupied a prominent position. This comprised an infinite variety of manufactured goods, all from factories owned by colored men. There were also many exhibits from colored schools in New York and from individuals.

Among other displays was a booth occupied by a negro poet from Charleston, South Carolina. He was surrounded by thousands of post-cards, each bearing some poem, epigram, or motto of his composition. These, being largely of the "uplift" variety, sold readily to the crowds. The walls of one of the rest rooms were hung with portraits and paintings of a negro Indianapolis painter twenty-three years of age.

At first an entrance fee of fifty cents was exacted at the Exposition gates, but later this



EXHIBIT OF SHAW UNIVERSITY

fee was dispensed with, all visitors being allowed to come in free. Only a dime admission was charged at the doors of the principal exhibit building.

On Thursday, July 8, "White Folks" day was observed, many white citizens of Richmond and vicinity inspecting the Exposition.

In every way except financially the Negro Exposition will rank as a great success. Some one has aptly said that in its simplicity, practicableness, and unique interest the Negro Exposition at Richmond was the most truly "American" exposition ever held in this country since the Centennial at Philadelphia in

1876. A prominent speaker at the Exposition thus summed it up:

This exposition, first of its kind in the history of the world, is a most splendid tribute to the courage, the strength, the perseverance, the indomitability, and the versatility of the negro race. It signifies the achievements of marvellous things by a once downtrodden race within a short span of fifty years. It typifies the industry, the development, the advancement, and the indefatigability of the negro race, whose era seems just dawning. Another fifty years of such accomplishment as has characterized the negro race during the past fifty years, and the colored man will stand in his place in the sun, mentally, morally, industrially, socially, and financially, as well as physically, emancipated.



THE VIRGINIA MISCELLANEOUS EXHIBIT



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THE NEW YORK CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION AT ALBANY

REVISING NEW YORK'S CONSTITUTION

IN the spring of 1914 one-third of New York's voters took part in a special election held to decide whether or not a convention should be called to propose a revision of the State Constitution. By a very small plurality the vote was in favor of such a convention and at the ensuing fall election delegates were chosen,—fifteen at large and 153 to represent districts.

The idea of a convention had been favorably considered in 1912 by the progressive elements of all parties. In that year the State had given more attention to radical reforms than ever before and it was well understood that some of those reforms, even if



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THE HON. ELIHU ROOT, PRESIDENT OF THE CONVENTION

demanding by popular vote, could not be embodied in law without changes in the Constitution. By 1914, however, there had come about one of those rapid shifts in politics for which New York is noted. The Republican party under standpat leadership was again in control, and the same vote which carried Governor Whitman into office elected a large majority of the convention membership, including, of course, all the delegates at large. The so-called "radicals" in all parties were left virtually unrepresented in the convention. The only outcome of the agitation begun by the progressives was the election of



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GEORGE W. WICKERSHAM (LEFT), LOUIS MARSHALL (RIGHT)
CHAIRMEN OF THE COMMITTEES ON THE JUDICIARY AND THE BILL OF
RIGHTS IN CONFERENCE

a group of delegates who professed no interest in such matters as the referendum, initiative, recall, or any of the other measures advocated by the Progressive or Socialist parties.

Such an outcome may or may not be regarded as desirable, according to one's point of view. This, at least, is true: The original reason for a convention became obsolete and the motive for attempting a revision of the State's organic law at this particular time was reduced to the somewhat perfunctory one



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A GROUP INCLUDING JOHN LORD O'BRIAN, SAMUEL K. PHILLIPS AND
RUSSELL WIGGINS, WITH EDWARD J. MCGOLDRICK, ASSISTANT
CORPORATION COUNSEL OF NEW YORK CITY



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ISRAEL T. DEYO (LEFT), RUSH RHEES (RIGHT)
TWO LEADING "UP-STATE" DELEGATES

found in the provision of the existing constitution (of 1894), which makes a general revision permissible when the people demand it by plurality vote.

A visitor to the State Capitol at Albany this midsummer, seeing the members' seats in the Assembly Chamber occupied, might easily be led to believe that the State Legislature was holding an extra session. Moreover, if he chanced to be at all acquainted with the personnel of recent legislatures, he would recognize among the men seated at the mem-

bers' desks not a few familiar faces,—these chiefly of State Senators rather than of Assemblymen. The general impression that he is likely to receive is that the State's lawmakers are on their good behavior and for some reason are clothed with rather more than their usual dignity. As for the presiding officer, few indeed have been the Speakers in the Assembly or Lieutenant-Governors in the Senate with the personal bearing of an Elihu Root.

Barring these differences, the likeness of the

Constitutional Convention to the State Legislature is by no means a fanciful one. Beyond question, the small group of leaders in the convention exceeds in brain force and weight of personal character the corresponding group in either branch of the legislature. The rank and file, however, are made up of nearly the same material in both bodies. As there are "\$1500 members" in every legislature, so there are \$1500 delegates in this convention. At the same time there are delegates (and these are the men who are doing the actual work) who are making real sacrifices every day that they spend in Albany, and whose disinterested devotion to the public service is unquestioned even by the most cynical



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SENATOR EDGAR J. BRACKETT AND PRESIDENT JACOB GOULD SCHURMAN, OF CORNELL



ROBERT F. WAGNER JOHN G. SAXE ALFRED E. SMITH
THREE LEADING DEMOCRATIC DELEGATES

and over-sophisticated Albany correspondent.

POLITICIANS AMONG THE DELEGATES

Every legislature has in its membership a larger or smaller element of politicians who have learned "the game" in all its details and have played it successfully. Whatever we may think of these men's fitness to make our laws, it must be conceded that the knowledge they have acquired of the practical workings of our politics is in itself a highly valuable equipment for the lawmaker. Through the operation of our nominating system a considerable number of these active party workers were chosen as delegates to this conven-

tion, which should at least be spared the reproach of ignorance as to "practical politics." William Barnes, of Albany, has the important chairmanship of the Committee on Legislative Powers. Determined that the "silk-stocking crowd" should be rebuked, two Tammany districts in New York City sent up to Albany a pair of case-hardened delegates of the old-time Tammany brand,—men who had been removed from



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HENRY L. STIMSON, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATE FINANCE, AND MARK W. POTTER, A MEMBER OF THE SAME COMMITTEE



SETH LOW
(Chairman of the Cities
Committee)



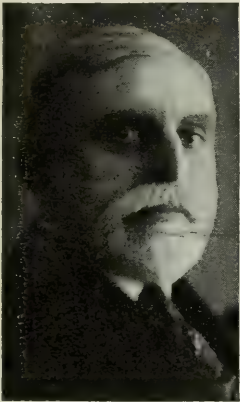
WILLIAM BARNES
(Chairman, Legislative
Powers)



LEMUEL E. QUIGG
(Revision and Engross-
ment)



HERBERT PARSONS
(Chairman, Industrial In-
terests and Relations)



CHARLES M. DOW
(Chairman, Conservation)



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FREDERICK C. TANNER
(Chairman, State Officers)



MARTIN SAXE
(Chairman, Taxation)



WILLIAM BERRI
(Chairman, Printing)



MORGAN J. O'BRIEN WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN JOHN B. STANCHFIELD DELANCEY NICOLL

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office under charges of gross corruption. But such instances were rare.

A LAWYERS' GATHERING

Another point of resemblance between the convention and the legislature is the predominance of lawyers in the membership in each. The profession that expounds and practises the law of the land is responsible, more than any other, for the making of that law. This is clearly demonstrated at Albany, where about 75 per cent. of the delegates are members of the bar. The average of ability and standing in the community is doubtless somewhat higher in the convention than in the legislature. Certainly the standards of leadership are higher.

THE REAL WORK IS DONE IN COMMITTEE

The visitor might go wrong if he tried to judge of the convention's activities and achievements by what he saw and heard in the daily session. The actual work that will count in the final result is done, not on the floor of the Assembly Chamber, but in the committee rooms. The debates in the public sessions form some indication of the drift of sentiment on particular questions among the delegates, but everybody knows that they have little to do with the actual solution of the convention's knotty problems. In the committees that were appointed by President Root immediately after the convention organized, all the amendments will be discussed, and while the committee reports on particular amendments will be debated in public session, it was generally admitted at Albany last month that the convention would be guided in its vote, almost without exception, by the decisions reached in committee.

EXPERTS SERVING ON COMMITTEES

The convention has thirty standing committees, nearly all of which are headed by chairmen who, in almost every instance, have had practical experience, if not expert knowledge, of the subject-matter with which their respective committees have to do. To name only a few of these committee chairmen, Mr. George W. Wickersham, former Attorney-General of the United States, of the Judiciary Committee; Mr. Henry L. Stimson, former Secretary of War, of State Finances; Mr. Seth Low, former Mayor of New York, of Cities; President Schurman, of Cornell University, of Education; Mr. Charles M. Dow, of Conservation of Natural Resources; Mr. Martin Saxe, of the State Taxation Commission, of Taxation; Mr. Herbert Par-

sons, of Industrial Interests and Relations; Senator Edgar T. Brackett, of the Legislature, Organization, etc.; and Mr. John Lord O'Brian, of Rules, are all men who have special knowledge of the matters and interests assigned to their committees for consideration, and this list might be greatly extended.

INTELLIGENT PUBLICITY: ITS VALUE

While no one expects radical proposals, or even the discussion of such proposals, from this convention, it is natural enough that attempts on the part of "the interests" to dictate desired amendments should have been looked for by the public. The best safeguard against such efforts is complete publicity, and through the long series of open committee hearings the convention has offered every facility for the interchange of facts and opinions between its committees and the people of the State. In the matter of informational equipment on the various subjects with which the delegates will have to deal, the fullest provision has been made. The documents compiled and published by the Constitutional Convention Commission, notably the bulletins of the Bureau of Municipal Research, discuss and illustrate for the benefit of the delegates the principles and organization of the State Government in a masterly way.

Something of the value of an intelligent committee as a defense of the constitution against the onslaughts of private interests is illustrated by the work of the Committee on Conservation of Natural Resources, under the chairmanship of the Hon. Charles M. Dow, for many years the head of the Board of Commissioners of the State Reservation at Niagara. Although this is the first constitutional convention in the history of New York that has attempted to cover this field, the data acquired by this committee, utilized as they will be in debate by several of the members who are among the leading delegates, will make so strong a showing that the efforts of lumbering companies to annul the restrictions in the present constitution on the control and use of the State forest lands are likely to prove wholly fruitless. Included in the membership of this committee are men who have given years of thought to the ways and means of protecting the forest and water resources of the Empire State.

THE PROBABLE OUTCOME

From these five months of hearings, inquiries, debates, and compromises, what is

likely to emerge in September? Will it be in any sense a *new* constitution? No one in or out of the convention, last month, would hazard such a forecast. In this connection, some New Yorkers may recall the fact that after the convention of 1894 had toiled a whole summer in the Albany heat and the product of its labors had been accepted by popular vote, the novelty was so soon outworn that within a year people were asking what changes had really been made, after all. The Constitution of 1915 will probably fall as far short of revolution as did that of 1894. Some amendments, however, are sure to be adopted by the convention, whether they are accepted by the people or not.

PROPOSED JUDICIARY AMENDMENTS

The middle of July was reached before a single one of the proposed changes had been adopted in committee of the whole. The move to substitute an appointive for an elective judiciary had many advocates in the legal profession and some among the delegates. Ex-President Taft, among others, appeared before the Judiciary Committee in support of this amendment. Yet it was admitted that the up-State opposition to so marked a decrease in the number of elective officials, quite apart from the merits of the question, would probably be strong enough to defeat the measure on the floor of the convention. A plan to submit this to the voters as a distinct proposition, not as a part of the new constitution, was still considered.

In order to bring about the more prompt consideration of cases in the Court of Appeals, there is a proposal before the Judiciary Committee to limit the number of appeals in civil cases. One other change that was vigorously urged before that committee was a reduction in the exemption from jury duty, with discretion placed in the judges to deal with excuses from service.

THE SHORT BALLOT AND THE BUDGET

Of the nearly 700 amendments that have taken shape since the convention began its sessions in April, there are only three or four on which public interest has thus far concentrated to any noticeable degree. Foremost among these is the Short Ballot, which is elucidated by Dr. Cleveland in the article that follows this.

In close alliance with the Short Ballot program is the measure for budget reform, which is also advocated by the Bureau of Municipal Research. This would give the initiation of budgets to the Governor, who

would then submit them to the legislature, which will have the power to reduce but not to raise items. This proposal is a part of the general scheme for converting the State government into a business organization with a common-sense distribution of powers, responsibilities, and duties.

The Hon. Henry L. Stimson, chairman of the Committee on State Finances, Revenues, and Expenditures, has devoted much time and thought to the budget proposition, as have the other members of his committee, several of whom have had both legislative and administrative experience. It may be assumed that the amendments finally proposed by this committee will be the fruit of matured reasoning and open-minded study.

Those who are dissatisfied with the present method of handling the State sinking funds and are asking for the adoption of a system of serial bonds have pointed out that the constitutional provisions regulating the creation of the State debt are not sufficiently definite and they propose such amendments as will facilitate the issue of serial bonds and will prevent a lapse to unsafe management of the State's finances.

HOME RULE FOR CITIES

The long campaign to secure for the cities of the State a greater measure of Home Rule seems now to have better chances of success than ever before. Interest in this reform is no longer confined to the metropolis, but most of the larger cities of the State are also concerned, since it has been shown that they too have suffered more or less from lack of local initiative. One of the chief arguments employed in the hearings before former Mayor Low's Cities Committee was based on the need of relieving the legislature from the burden of detail imposed by the present method of conducting city government from Albany. The amendments that will probably have the support of the Cities Committee, and in all likelihood will be adopted by the convention, will confer on cities nothing more than the initiation of measures to be acted on by the legislature. Nothing, it may be confidently asserted, will be proposed that will tend to impair the vital sovereignty of the State government.

Such amendments as these, if adopted, will be the most important outcome of the summer's work at Albany. Whatever changes are made in the constitution as a whole will be confined to the field of administration.

W. B. SHAW.

THE SHORT BALLOT AND THE NEW YORK CONSTITUTION

BY FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND

(Director, Bureau of Municipal Research)

[Dr. Cleveland, who is our greatest American authority on public accounting, and the author of a number of important books in the field of administration and government, is at present Director of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research. His work is at the foundation of a great part of the improvement in city government for which the present municipal authorities of the metropolis are justly praised. Dr. Cleveland and the Bureau have performed a prodigious task in preparing a critical and scientific conspectus of the existing structure of the government of the State of New York, for the use of the Constitutional Convention now in session at Albany. He is not merely a man who writes about reforming public business but the things he actually does are even more important than the things he writes.—THE EDITOR.]

IT is not a far cry from the common affairs of life to representative government. Men and women do not find it more difficult to follow the work of delegates at Albany than to follow the work of the committee organizing a grange, or a club, or any other coöperative society. Government is thought of as the mutual enterprise of citizens organized to render common service at cost. Delegates are a committee selected by citizens to revise the charter of their mutual enterprise. Essentially, State government is as simple as any other corporation. The differences in organization and method lie chiefly in the greater volume of business and the greater variety of things which citizens of the State wish to have the government do for them.

The size of a State's business does not make it essentially different from that of a much smaller enterprise or more difficult for the average citizen to comprehend in its broad relations. It only makes it more important that attention be given to methods of supervision and control. Directly or indirectly, each citizen must furnish a share of the joint capital required to carry on the business of the State; directly or indirectly, each must pay his ratable part of the cost of what is spent for the common good. Each citizen, therefore, is vitally interested in the proposed charter amendments—especially in those that have to do with management.

PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT COMMONLY ACCEPTED

Simply stated, the principles governing the management that should be incorporated in charters, whether public or private, are these:

1. That the management of any

joint enterprise shall be for the benefit of all persons concerned.

2. That the funds and properties shall be held and used as a trust.

3. That officers are servants and, therefore, provision should be made so that they will at all times be responsive to the wishes of a majority, and will be held responsible for their acts.

4. That as a means of enforcing responsiveness and responsibility the charter or the constitution must provide for three things:

First. An executive, who will be held to account for getting things done.

Second. A board, or body of representatives who will meet from time to time to review the acts and proposals of the executive, to raise questions, and to reach decisions in matters of financial and other policy requiring deliberation.

Third. Voters, or persons who are charged with responsibility for expressing the will of the beneficiaries of the trust in selecting officers and in settling controversies as they arise between the executive and the board, or between members of the board themselves.

If this statement of the principles governing management which should be incorporated in a charter or constitution were made to any group of citizens it would be accepted without discussion. Every man and woman would say: "This is what is done in all of our joint enterprises. When we organize a company we always think of the manager as our servant; we always assume that he will carry on our business as a trust. We always draw our charters in the thought that there will be an executive who is to be held to ac-

count for management and that he will run the business according to the wishes of a majority of the members."

The election of a representative body or board is the means which we always provide for holding the manager to account. The chief business of the representative body is to review the acts and the proposals of those who administer—to approve or disapprove of them and, in case of a disapproval, to make their reasons known. If every representative supports the executive in what he has done and in what he proposes to do, then everyone feels sure that the business is being done well; but if "opposition" is developed at a meeting of the representative board, then we want to know what the discussion is about in order that we may take matters into our own hands to the extent of deciding which side of the controversy we will support—whether we will stand back of those who are "for" the present management, or with those who are "against" it. This is a very simple method and it has been very effectively used in all our joint undertakings—whether a church, a club or a profit-sharing enterprise—to make those who manage the business responsive and responsible to the members.

ESSENTIAL DEFECTS IN THE PRESENT CONSTITUTION

The striking fact about the present State constitution of New York is that, in drafting it, every one of these accepted principles of management have been violated. We are told by way of justification that delegates were afraid to give to citizens the right to select some one who will be held to account for getting things done—that they are afraid he would abuse his power. We are also told that they were afraid to give the representative body the usual power of control. Instead of making the Governor responsible for doing things and the legislature responsible for reviewing what he has done and what he proposes to do—for approving or disapproving—we have taken away from the Governor nearly all the initiative and set him up as a check on the legislature. While these governing principles were discussed in convention as if they were vital, in so far as expression is given in the constitution itself they are mere platitudes; such words as "executive" are used in the draft in only a figurative sense. The constitution in 1894 when carefully read discloses these facts:

1. While the Governor is said to be "vested" with "the executive power" in one paragraph of the constitution, he is

specifically deprived of every direct means of exercising this power in another.

2. While the representative body is given power to decide what is to be done and what funds are to be provided, such conditions and limitations are attached to the exercise of these powers as to make them ineffective as agents for locating and enforcing responsibility,—instead of representatives being made the watchdogs of the treasury they have been constituted irresponsible dispensing agents who arrive at decisions through methods of "log-rolling" and what has come to be known as "invisible government."

3. The Governor is directed annually to tell the legislature what is the condition of the State, but is not provided with the means for knowing the facts or keeping representatives and the people advised about what is going on.

4. There is not only no provision for official leadership in the management, but the constitution has been carefully framed so that the only leadership possible is that of an unofficial, irresponsible "boss."

5. No provision is made in the constitution for having issues raised between the executive and members of the legislature in such manner that they may be voted on as "executive" measures, and, if not supported by a majority, submitted to the people at a regular or special election called for the purpose.

6. No provision is made for the prompt dismissal of persons who are found to be out of harmony with the majority or for unfaithful pre-election pledges; no provision is made for the prompt retirement of an executive who does not retain the support of the majority of the representative body.

7. Citizens vote, but they must vote in such geographical units and under such conditions as to make it impossible for them to express opinion of a State-wide constitution, on questions of policy, or in the choice of officers, the result being the "gerrymander" for the defeat of the popular will.

THE PRESENT CONSTITUTION A REFLECTION ON PUBLIC INTELLIGENCE

If a charter built on these lines were brought before a group of citizens, as incorporators, in this or any other State, it would be rejected. Furthermore, it would be rejected as a reflection on their intelligence.

Yet, this is essentially the constitution under which citizens of the State of New York are now incorporated, and pursuant to which officers are required to carry on public business. The result is as might be expected,—*irresponsive and irresponsible government*. The history of the last one hundred years has been one gradual degeneration of the representative system.

RELATION OF THE EXECUTIVE TO THE LEGISLATURE

The disregard which has been shown for commonly accepted essentials to responsive and responsible government shows itself clearly in the relation of the executive to the legislature. Annually a representative body meets but the executive does not meet with it. Why is he not there? Because the constitution forbids. Instead of attending the business meetings of a representative board of control, he is required at the opening of the legislative session to deliver a general lecture to the members; then he retires never to appear again during the session for fear "he may influence the vote." Not only is he not allowed to meet with them to tell them what has been done since the last meeting, but he is not permitted to go before members to answer questions when raised by them about what has taken place or to lay before them plans for new work. In fact, he is told that if members want to know anything about the business in hand they will appoint a committee to investigate. Imagine a business concern of any kind being run in this fashion. The first instinct of a business man on a board would be to ask that the executive come before the annual meeting. In fact, nothing but short-sighted action could be taken without him. The fear of the abuse of power has been the cause both of incompetence and irresponsibility on the part of members of the legislature as well as the Governor. Instead of providing for official leadership and then working out an effective means of control through which responsibility may be enforced, the whole drift of the past century has been toward unofficial and irresponsible leadership, curbing legislative action, and creating an unrepresentative government.

RELATION OF THE EXECUTIVE TO THE ADMINISTRATION

To support this conclusion it is necessary to advert to only two results of the dissipation of executive power, namely: (1) ill-adapted administrative laws,—the creation

of uncorrelated departments and offices for rendering service, (2) the passing of laws governing appointments and removals, the result of which is to make discipline impossible.

A graphic picture of the lack of correlation of departments and offices and the more or less shadowy lines of administrative irresponsibility as they exist under these laws is revealed by the most cursory examination of the State government. There are 140 of these divisions that have administrative duties to perform. These are quite isolated except insofar as contact is provided through the Governor,—a contact which is quite remote. The departments, commissions, and offices handling public works functions, for example, include the following: two commissions: a Highway Department; a Department of Public Works to handle canal operation; an office of the State Engineer carrying on canal construction; an office of State Architect; Trustees of Public buildings; Palisades Interstate Park Commission; the Bronx Parkway Commission; and, in part of its activities, the Conservation Department. What could be less conducive to the making of a consistent, intelligent plan of public works than the creation of a lot of unrelated and uncorrelated official responsibilities within this field of public service, with little or no means provided for having common problems considered from every angle of interest to the managers and the public before the plan is taken up with the Governor for his approval? Any approval by the chief executive under such circumstances must be on snap judgment. Nothing could be more conducive to wasteful expenditure of public funds than to have each of these 140 different administrative divisions dealing directly with committees of the legislature composed of persons who have no responsibility except to their local constituencies.

But lack of coordination of work is not all that the Governor must contend with. Appointment by the Governor is only one of the sixteen different methods prescribed by the legislature; only two of his direct appointees have administrative duties of any considerable importance. There are eight methods provided by law for removal, and these in a few instances follow the line of appointment. Let the head of big business ask himself what would have been the possibilities of his success as a manager if he had been required to work under conditions such as these in discharging responsibility for directing activities, the cost of which is fifty mil-

lion dollars a year and which requires the regular services of more than twenty thousand regular employees.

CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENTS PROPOSED

Between April 6 and June 18, 690 amendments to the constitution had been proposed by delegates to the convention. In so far as these have to do with matters of organization for management, there are two general types. Either they provide for increasing powers and responsibility of the Governor, or they aim to carry to greater extremes the dissipation of executive power.

"SHORT BALLOT" BILLS

There are nine amendments the purpose of which is to centralize and definitize executive responsibility. Six of these may be designated as "Short-Ballot" bills: i.e., they are framed on the theory that by providing for the election of a single executive and for the appointment of all heads of departments and administrative officers, the readjustment of executive power may be left to take care of itself. In these six bills no attempt is made to establish the machinery with which public business is to be administered. There are three proposals, however, the purpose of which is to provide the general structure for management. Of these the Bernstein amendment simply enumerates thirteen executive officers to be appointed by the Governor. The Smith amendment makes it the duty of the legislature to create eight departments, specifying in general terms what shall be the functions performed by each. In prescribing the work of these departments, however, a large portion of the state's activities have been left out of account and in other parts the proposed amendment would associate certain activities that are antagonistic.

PROPOSED ORGANIZATION OF THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH

The only amendment which takes cognizance of all of the activities at present performed by the State as well as those which may hereafter be added, and which attempts to correlate work of similar kind under a single executive, was introduced by Senator John G. Saxe. This amendment would set up eleven subdivisions of the executive branch, each of which would be under an appointee of the Governor, who for purposes of management would act as vice-governor,

all of these heads of executive divisions constituting an executive council or cabinet. Besides this the Governor is given certain independent or central machinery of administration to be grouped in an executive department and would also be provided with a staff "bureau of administration" which would be freed from routine duties to enable the Governor to obtain independent contact with and report on the several divisions of the service. Aside from the department of audit, at the head of which would be the State Comptroller, and the department of law at the head of which would be the Attorney-General, the following divisions of the executive branch would be established: the Treasury, which would include all finance and trust functions; civil service; agriculture and industry; public works; charities and corrections; health and safety; industrial relations; public utilities; banking and insurance; state militia.

In drafting the Saxe amendment the short-ballot principle was departed from to the extent that the Comptroller and the Attorney-General are both made elective officers. This was done largely for purposes of expediency, it being thought that it was much more important at the present time to establish the machinery necessary to effective management than to insist on reduction of the ticket to be elected to a single officer.

PROPOSALS WHICH DEAL WITH DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION

There are several hundred amendments proposed which deal with detached subjects of departmental organization, powers, and duties. A large part of these, however, proceed on the theory that there will be next to no central executive responsibility. Back of each of these bills is one or more citizen agency interested in a particular kind of public activity. Reasoning from what has been to what is desired, these highly specialized groups of citizens are urging a further dissipation of executive power. Such proposals, however, are at variance both with the "short-ballot" principle, as they are also with the provisions of the Saxe bill which undertakes to establish an effective machinery for central executive control. They are at variance with the "short-ballot" principle, in that the election of a single executive who is without power would be nothing short of a farce; they are at variance with any proposal for increasing the efficiency of the executive.

A YEAR OF COTTON AND OTHER SOUTHERN CROPS

BY EDWARD INGLE

[Mr. Ingle has been well known for many years as one of the editors of the *Manufacturers' Record* of Baltimore, and an authority upon the production and manufacture of cotton and the industrial progress of the South. It may be remarked incidentally that Mr. Ingle was one of the group of men in the field of history and political science at the Johns Hopkins University who were associated as fellow-students with President Wilson.—THE EDITOR.]

ENTERING upon a new cotton year, the cotton-growing States of the South have behind them a twelve-months' experience unequalled in their history. Its outcome, now fairly manifest, might well have been deemed impossible in August, 1914, in the light of dominant facts of that time.

One year ago the population of the Southern cotton belt faced—

The largest crop of cotton ever raised in this country,—16,135,000 bales averaging 500 pounds each. This was 1,979,999 bales more than the crop of 1913 and 442,000 bales more than the crop of 1911, the previous record-breaker.

Possibility of no market or of a much restricted market in six European countries usually buying about 59 per cent. of the crop.

Dullness in the cotton-goods trade antedating and independent of the foreign war.

The inference at the moment was that the annual return to the cotton-growers would be cut in half.

Now, at the end of the commercial year, the South finds—

Instead of only \$450,000,000, nearer \$600,000,000 received for its lint cotton, representing, to be sure, \$280,000,000 or \$290,000,000 less than the value of the 1913 crop, but an actual loss to the growers,—the difference between the cost of making the crop and the amount of money received for it,—of \$50,000,000 to \$75,000,000 instead of \$200,000,000 to \$225,000,000.

Approximately 15,000,000 bales marketed, of which more than 8,000,000 bales were exported, and a carry-over of less than 3,000,000 bales instead of more than 4,000,000 bales.

Exports of cotton goods exceeding imports for the first time in several years and reflecting a temporary activity in special lines of textiles consequent upon the war.

Decided impetus given to the movement for diversification in agriculture taking direction especially toward the raising of home supplies for man and beast.

Gradual veering from an exaggerated credit system toward a cash basis of operations, with living within one's income precedent to productive purchasing.

Determination to strengthen the facilities of standard warehouses as a means of financing the cotton crop.

RESUMING NORMAL CONDITIONS

The marketing of the crop at home and abroad, accomplishing such ends and encouraging such purposes, was fraught with many difficulties. Domestic cotton mills, still interested in stocks of goods made of 12-cent or 13-cent cotton, were naturally apprehensive of the effect upon their markets of the knowledge that an enormous quantity of raw cotton could be bought at a much lower price. At the same time, when they sought to buy the raw material after a few weeks of halting, they were embarrassed by the holding of it for 10 cents a pound, the price arbitrarily fixed under the "buy-a-bale" auspices.

Complaint was made as late as December, for instance, that the mills in the textile center of South Carolina had been obliged to send more than \$1,000,000 into Georgia and Alabama for cotton at higher prices than those prevailing in the legitimate markets because near-by growers were holding their crop for even higher prices. Aside from the

interruption by war, foreign mills were overstocked with goods for markets below their normal consumptive condition. With resumption of the export movement came revival in domestic buying, and by the early spring of this year mills of the United States had approached their usual volume of takings.

Recovery induced by foreign buying was marked by interesting stages. In the first three months of the commercial year beginning with August 9,829,000 bales of the American crop were ginned,—an increase over the beginning of the like period in 1913 of 996,000 bales. But only 2,719,000 bales came to market,—a decrease of 2,323,000 bales. This exhibit, based upon the report of Col. Henry G. Hester, secretary of the New Orleans Cotton Exchange, the Southern statistical authority on cotton, and the report of the Census Bureau, was a result of a combination of the closing of the exchanges, quite general holding of their cotton by growers, and the demoralization in shipping. There was a decided spurt in November, 1914, with 2,468,000 bales coming into sight and an expansion in exports, and the first five months of the commercial year showed 14,448,000 bales, or 89 per cent. of the crop ginned, 7,836,000 bales marketed, and 2,479,000 bales (2,845,000 bales fewer than in the August-November period of 1913), exported. Meanwhile, farm prices for cotton had ranged from 6.3 cents or less to 7.5 cents or more a pound.

But between January and April, the next four months inclusive, 4,700,000 bales were exported, American spinners bought more freely, and, under such impulses adding from \$8 to \$12 to the value of the bale at the farm, 6,352,000 bales were brought to market. Within the next two months the exports passed beyond the 8,000,000-bales mark, the total movement to market approached the 15,000,000-bales mark and the takings by mills of the United States reached a point indicating a probability of a total for the commercial year greater than 6,000,000 bales. In the ten months, August, 1914, to May, 1915, inclusive, the exports were 7,977,000 bales,—only 732,000 bales fewer than in the ten months of 1913-14. May, 1915, exports were more than twice as great as those of May, 1914,—a situation radically different from that of August, 1914, when only 21,000 bales had been exported, as against 236,000 bales in August, 1913.

By July 1, when the National Department of Agriculture issued its preliminary estimate

of the acreage planted to cotton this year, less than 3,000,000 bales of the 1914 growth and the carry-over from 1913 crop were still to be marketed. The estimate showed a total area under cultivation in cotton of 31,535,000 acres, 5,871,000 acres fewer than the area planted in 1914 and 5,297,000 acres fewer than the area picked in that year.

DECREASED ACREAGE

This decrease indicates, under conditions identical with those of 1914, a crop of 13,600,000 bales. But the crop of 1915 is in some respects a cheap crop, as it has been styled. The cotton belt cut this year its usual fertilizer bill of \$85,000,000 by probably \$30,000,000, according to the calculation of a representative of one of the leading fertilizer manufacturing corporations of the South. Effect of the reduction in the quantity of fertilizer used by some growers and of its elimination by others is still to be demonstrated. But it is reasonable to believe that it will appear in a crop within the measure of 13,000,000 bales. Such a crop may not meet the hope of 1914 for a reduction of acreage by from 30 to 45 per cent. That hope minimized the fact that 1,700,000 persons cannot learn a much-needed lesson in the short space of six months. However, such a crop it is within the expectation of of careful students of all phases of the cotton problem.

INCREASE IN GRAIN ACREAGE

Particularly is this so when are considered the efforts for diversification reflected in the coincidence of a reduction of 5,836,000 acres in the area planted to cotton in the eleven States, Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas, that grow 99 per cent. of the American crop and an increase of 1,812,000 acres in the area sown to wheat and of 1,903,000 acres in the area sown to oats in those States in the fall of 1914,—a total of 3,715,000 acres added to the grain-growing area. The significance of this becomes greater when it is seen that, while the cotton acreage reduction amounted to 16 per cent., the increase in wheat acreage was 33 per cent. and in oats acreage, 102 per cent. The accompanying table, comparing by States in the cotton belt the reduction in cotton acreage in 1915 with the increase in the acreage sown to wheat and oats, indicates the extent to which these two grain crops were substituted for cotton during the year.

States	Reduction in Area planted in cotton Spring of 1915		Increase in Area planted in wheat Fall of 1914		Increase in Area planted in oats Fall of 1914	
	Acres	Per ct.	Acres	Per ct.	Acres	Per ct.
Ala.	693,000	17	63,000	185	258,000	116
Ark.	357,000	14	56,000	44	154,000	211
Fla.	22,000	9	20,000	64
Ga.	826,000	15	170,000	118	328,000	96
La.	201,000	15	94,000	189
Miss.	372,000	12	1,000	125	156,000	147
N. C.	247,000	16	470,000	75	98,000	56
Okla.	818,000	28	515,000	20	44,000	133
S. C.	491,000	17	164,000	200	336,000	112
Tenn.	122,000	13	145,000	20	124,000	127
Tex.	1,687,000	14	228,000	20	291,000	66
Total	5,836,000	16	1,812,000	33	1,903,000	102

In only three of these States was the increase in this grain acreage greater than the decrease in cotton acreage, the favorable balances being 321,000 acres in North Carolina, 9,000 in South Carolina and 147,000 in Tennessee. Oklahoma, which made the greatest percentage of decrease in cotton acreage, increased its wheat and oats acreage by 559,000 acres, and Texas, which made the greatest actual decrease in cotton acreage, added 519,000 acres to its wheat and oats.

Four States west of the Mississippi,—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma and Texas,—that raised 45 per cent. of the 1914 crop, show 52 per cent. of the cotton acreage reduction, 44 per cent. of the wheat acreage increase and 30 per cent. of the oats acreage increase. Twenty-seven per cent. of the cotton acreage reduction was in the four Atlantic coast States, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina and South Carolina, and these States had 44 per cent. of the increase in wheat acreage and 41 per cent. of the increase in oats.

Fifty-four per cent. of the farmers in the four trans-Mississippi States are tenants, comparing with 26 per cent. in Florida, 66 per cent. in Georgia, 42 per cent. in North Carolina, and 63 per cent. in South Carolina. There is little in this statistical exhibit suggesting what class of farmers turned this year from cotton to wheat and oats. It is fair, though, to reason that the tendency to do so was weakest among the tenant class, occupying lands in sections hardly suitable for economic wheat-growing, or unused to any main crop other than cotton, and that the reduction in cotton acreage is to be accounted for in part by the planting of no crop.

For a reduction of cotton acreage practical experience of independent growers with low prices or with the ravages of the boll-weevil has much more influence than preachments about the advantages of diversification in money crops or of home-raised foodstuffs and feedstuffs. What one's neighbors are likely

to do and the comparative helplessness of hundreds of thousands of tenants bound to the expanded credit system are indeterminate factors in any study of the cotton problem.

High prices for wheat and oats under heavy buying for foreign lands were effective for an expansion last fall in the grain acreage in the cotton belt. Seasonal conditions, especially in the wheat belt proper of the South, brought it to pass that, in spite of increased acreage, the indicated wheat crop of 1915 in the whole South is only 420,000 bushels greater than in 1914. But in the eleven States of the cotton belt the increase of 10,657,000 bushels more than overcomes the decrease of 10,238,000 bushels in the other five States, and the eleven cotton States contribute 42,201,000 bushels to the aggregate increase of 51,071,000 bushels in the oat crop of the South. Even a price for these grains less than that of last fall and winter is hardly likely to give a set-back to this form of agricultural diversification.

Furthermore, the advantage of making home supplies was emphasized by the experience of the year reinforced by the advice of experts having wide range of observation. The National Department of Agriculture showed, for instance, that eleven Southern States, which in 1913 raised corn, wheat, oats and hay to the value of \$630,000,000, buy annually from points outside their borders \$203,000,000 worth of such products, including flour. E. J. Watson, State Commissioner of Agriculture of South Carolina, presented figures of an aggregate of \$86,309,000 spent for agricultural products brought into the State, although all of them can be raised within the State, an amount of money, together with other millions spent likewise for horses, mules, fruits and vegetables, nearly equal to the \$103,000,000 value of the State's crop of cotton and seed in 1913.

Brought into South Carolina in One Year

Canned goods	\$13,937,282
Flour	10,851,919
Bacon	10,677,071
Cornmeal, etc.	10,160,693
Beef	9,021,000
Lard	8,263,000
Butter	6,400,000
Corn	6,000,000
Oats	3,000,000
Hay	2,351,789
Cheese	2,000,000
Mixed feed	1,846,404
Eggs	600,000
Cabbages	500,000
Potatoes	450,000
Onions	250,000
Total	\$86,309,158

DIVERSIFIED FARMING

On the other hand, the possibilities in diversification were exemplified in a statement by E. O. Bruner, Commissioner of the Louisiana Department of Agriculture, giving as \$84,290,825 the value of a score among the varied farm products of the State in 1914.

One Year's Farm Production in Louisiana

Corn, 30,808,005 bushels.....	\$20,027,835
Sugar, 409,091,487 pounds.....	16,550,830
Cotton, 438,360 bales.....	15,417,090
Rough rice, 502,308,920 pounds.....	11,074,344
Cottonseed	5,000,000
Hay, 328,004 tons.....	3,344,120
Sweet potatoes, 5,224,355 bushels....	2,696,621
Syrup, 96,070 barrels.....	1,735,148
Milk, 5,190,300 gallons.....	1,540,300
Molasses, 298,225 barrels.....	1,461,962
Strawberries, 1482 carloads.....	1,214,600
Oats, 1,907,094 bushels.....	1,036,121
Irish potatoes, 1,312,150 bushels.....	919,042
Cattle, 1059 carloads.....	675,725
Vegetables, 1753 carloads.....	596,812
Canned goods.....	446,200
Peanuts, 347,910 bushels.....	325,619
Oranges, 185,400 boxes.....	133,500
Tobacco, 220,000 pounds.....	55,000
Hogs, 69 carloads.....	39,956

Total\$84,290,825

In addition, large quantities of poultry, eggs, honey, butter, home-canned fruits and vegetables and other products used at home or sold.

In Louisiana 500 silos were built in 1914,—a token that the lesson in diversification taught a few years previously by the boll-weevil is being applied in the same way as in Texas. A packing-plant and a grist mill at Natchez, Miss., are complements to stock-feeding and grain-raising in its section, with the inevitable greater attention paid to hay, peas, potatoes, syrup, and vegetables as money crops, while in parts of Alabama more thought is given to alfalfa than to cotton. Beginning of operations by a meat-packing establishment at Moultrie helped to save the day for farmers in that section of Georgia by making a market for their cattle and hogs. In another section of the State the farmers had cash from the sale of cane and syrup, beef-cattle and hogs with which to meet their Fall obligations and were able to hold their cotton for January and February prices. Multiplication of instances of this kind is the surest hope for the policy of "living at home," the most direct means for the solution of the perplexing problem of the cotton crop.

COÖPERATIVE WAREHOUSES

Independence of the farmer thereby promised will be strengthened by provision

for adequate warehouse facilities for the staple. These have been urged with more or less vigor and with some degree of practical results for ten years. Individual mills have made a success of a system of thus financing their purchases of raw cotton needed by them, here and there at important concentrating points commercial warehouses have found profit and growers, themselves, have established coöperative warehouses. South Carolina is essaying a State system and at New Orleans a somewhat similar public enterprise will soon be in operation. About the most comprehensive plan advanced in this domain was that considered seriously in the early spring of 1914. It looked to the formation of a coöperative or corporate body capitalized sufficiently to operate a chain of warehouses, utilizing existing facilities and enlarging them and providing standard requirements that would make possible the issuance of warehouse receipts and certification of them by banking interests of a standing guaranteeing the integrity and the quality of the collateral represented by the receipts so as to make them unquestionably acceptable in any money market. This plan was designed to embrace in its operations farmers, merchants, bankers, transportation agencies, and textile manufacturers. It contained many attractive elements. But the difficulty of reaching a plane of action appealing uniformly to the diversity of interests represented, added to the general business depression that developed about that time, left the plan in abeyance.

Necessities of the past year have directed attention again to the standard warehouse plan. In the cotton belt there is an estimated storage capacity, including the warehouses of cotton mills, factors and private individuals, for 14,700,000 bales of cotton. Of the aggregate, capacity, to be used with a sense of security, for probably 9,000,000 bales is accessible for the great body of growers, but the warehouses that will meet the standards called for in any plan of conservative and reasonable financing of surplus cotton will store, it has been estimated, hardly as much as 5,000,000 bales. The emergency of 1914-15, still pressing, proved what holding of cotton may accomplish for the growers. Such holding under an adequate warehouse system, giving the means for financial operations with cotton warehouse receipts as collateral, will be a fend against any such clogging of the wheels of business as happened in the past fall and winter. Interest of the Federal Reserve Board in the subject,

taking the form of a full survey of the situation with suggestion of the possibility of co-operation by the banks for a gradual marketing, by means of the warehouse system, of the coming crop, is in itself calculated to advance the idea of cotton bonded warehouses and to be a stabilizer of the market as the new crop comes forward.

EFFECT OF THE WAR

With a supply of cotton about 2,000,000 bales less than that of the past year in prospect, the Southern cotton belt fronts a European situation more acute, perhaps, than that of August 1, 1914, but having now the quality of certainty in one direction that it did not then have. More foreign buyers of Southern cotton are at war, but it is obvious that a considerable quantity of cotton that otherwise would not have been sold because of partial or complete paralysis of mill operations in Europe has been bought for use in the manufacture of explosives or of other articles of wholesale demand in war. Cessation from that use in the ending of the war will tend to revive the normal demand, if not to increase it.

Other facts reduce the weight of considerations grounded in the war. There have been other years of lean prices. Between 1891 and 1899 the average annual price per pound, New York, for middling uplands fell from 9.03 cents to 6 cents a pound, the 11,275,000 bales, with the seed, of the commercial crop of 1898-99 brought \$166,000,000 less than the \$486,000,000 paid for the crop of 8,653,000 bales of 1890-91 and the average annual value per bale, with seed, in the nine years was only \$41.29 in an aggregate value of \$3,313,000,000 for 80,230,000 bales.

On the other hand, in the nine years, 1906-14, the average annual price per pound was in no year less than 10 cents, and the ag-

gregate value of 117,878,000 bales of the nine crops, with seed, was \$8,033,000,000, or an average of \$68.14 per bale. Nearly \$900,000,000 a year brought into the cotton belt in payment for the cotton crop was a decided contribution, direct and indirect, to the increase in the tangible wealth of the eleven States at the average rate of about \$1,983,000,000 a year, the census estimate of the true value of property in those States showing an increase between 1904 and 1912 from \$11,551,762,000 to \$27,417,937,000. Of the aggregate in the latter year \$14,913,459,000, or nearly 55 per cent., represented the value of real estate and improvements, live stock and farm machinery.

Again, it is well to bear in mind the volume of total production in the eleven States compared with cotton production. In 1913 the value of the agricultural production was not less than \$2,700,000,000, of which \$1,000,000,000 represented cotton and its seed, the value of the mineral output was \$218,000,000 and the value of forest products was \$436,000,000, a total value of primary products of \$3,354,000,000, while the value of manufactures into which such products entered was not less than \$1,900,000,000. Of this total \$5,154,000,000 value of primary and ultimate products the value of cotton and its seed was less than 20 per cent.

One year of loss on the cotton crop cannot overcome the material benefits of conditions increasing in ten years property values by nearly \$20,000,000,000. Nor can it weaken essentially ability to produce in normal years nearly \$5,300,000,000 in values based upon natural resources in minerals, with coal underlying 22,362,000 acres in seven States of the eleven, in forests covering 205,000,000 acres and in farms embracing 293,000,000 acres, of which only 116,120,000 are at present improved.



THE COST OF A YEAR OF WAR

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

WE first wonder, as neutrals, how the bruised soul of a nation can go on enduring the punishment of the war and then we are amazed at the ability to stand up under the cost of it. At what point does exhaustion begin to show, we ask? At the end of a year of struggle are there signs of financial weakness in Europe great enough to be an early factor in terminating the war?

Financing the great war is not so much of a mystery as it seems. Whenever an individual or a country has to have, or wants, some expensive undertaking or object, it usually finds the means to obtain it. The process is not always a wise one or based on sound economics, though carried out to its desired conclusion. An individual, fairly thrifty all his life, suddenly forms a passion for an automobile. This he cannot afford, except as he sacrifices part of his savings to possess it. Its running cost takes too much from an already small income. Its purchase price displaces some of a previous investment. The first car is usually followed by a more expensive one and by more displacement of investment, frequently a mortgage on property or on chattels. Financing this luxury is no longer a mystery, but it has become a serious economic problem for future generations to solve and to bear.

Some such program as this is now being carried out by a majority of the European countries at war. For nearly a year they have been paying the expenses of armies and navies from the liquid savings of two or more generations. Now they have reached a point where the displacement of fixed capital is necessary in order to pay their way across a blood-drenched continent. Each time they borrow they must sell or hypothecate the equivalent in securities, lands, commercial credits, or what not, and even former war loans are being used as collateral for new ones. Thus the process of pyramiding debt goes on and no one can now estimate the scope of it.

Speaking in the British House of Lords early in July, Viscount Middleton urged greater restriction of civil expenditures in view of the high cost of the war. If peace should be declared by March 31, 1916, he estimated the national debt at \$6,460,000,000 and a deficit in interest charges alone, on the

basis of present taxation, of \$70,000,000 per annum. As will be shown later, this figure of the probable British debt eight months hence is conservative, for with the last loan national obligations are already \$8,500,000,000 and the carrying charge nearly \$350,000,000. The London *Economist* said on June 26:

Unless revenue is increased by taxation at the end of this fiscal year, the national debt will have gone from \$5,825,000,000 on March 31 to \$10,325,000,000, and the debt service to \$450,000,000.

Since the 4½ per cent. loan closed, July 10, Parliament has asked authority to vote \$1,250,000,000 more. The process of debt creation seems endless.

About the middle of July, London, Paris, and New York newspapers carried an item which stated that German bankers had interviewed Emperor William for the purpose of pointing out to him "the financial difficulties of the situation" and to declare that "if the war were prolonged the German Empire would become utterly bankrupt." Allowing a certain amount of color absorbed through contact of this report with censors of the Allies, one may still appreciate the attitude of German bankers, who have no false ideas of what a 200-per cent. increase in bank-note circulation within a year means, even though the gold in the Reichsbank may have increased from \$328,000,000 to \$597,000,000, or over 80 per cent.

OPERATING COST

In the April number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, I estimated the cost of the war for eight months at \$10,000,000,000 on the operating side, and \$10,000,000,000 on the side of property destruction, loss of trade, and the wastage, economically, from the millions of men who had been killed or permanently disabled.

Four months later, as a year is rounded out, the operating cost to date for the different belligerents may be set down as follows:

Great Britain	\$3,500,000,000
France	2,800,000,000
Russia	2,800,000,000
Italy	500,000,000
Germany and Turkey.....	3,000,000,000
Austria-Hungary	1,500,000,000

This total of over \$14,000,000,000 does not show as high a progressive rate of expenditure as some commentators have indicated. It is true that the cost to Great Britain has enormously increased. Whereas, in April, it was at the daily rate of \$10,000,000, it is now \$15,000,000 per day. England has only of late begun to be "speeded up" and in the present high cost she is paying a large premium for early inefficiency and indifference. It is certain that Germany's daily cost is not so high as when mobilization and the advance into France were taking place, for the expenditure of ammunition, except on the eastern front, has not been so great as between August and November. With most of the countries, except England, the net increase of men in the field since April has not been heavy, for a large replacement of killed and wounded has had to be made. The cost of munitions and of food is greater than in the spring; on the other hand, a winter campaign involves much larger requirements in the way of an individual soldier's equipment than does one carried on in warm weather. Just as soon as the fact becomes known that war may be continued into 1916 there will be a repetition of the heavy buying of clothing, etc., whose manufacture swamped the mills of this country some months ago.

Property damage, since April, has been negligible compared with the losses incurred in the first eight months of the war. Except in Galicia, which had been pretty thoroughly devastated before the Russians retreated from it, some parts of Poland, a little section of the Austro-Italian frontier and what remained of Ypres and Arras, the situation has not changed. Maritime losses also have been relatively insignificant apart from that of the *Lusitania*. Therefore, the early figure of \$10,000,000,000 need not be revised by over \$1,000,000,000, covering trade loss and loss of life.

COMPARISONS WITH FORMER WARS

The total sum is great enough in all conscience. \$25,000,000,000! In general the year's war cost has equalled the ten-year expense of equipping and maintaining the armies and navies of Europe. It is equal to the cost of all previous wars since Napoleon first started to lead France, and it compares with a cost of the Napoleonic wars, estimated at \$6,700,000,000; with \$5,000,000,000, the cost of the United States Civil War; with \$2,500,000,000, the cost of the Franco-Prussian War; with \$1,165,000,000, the cost of the Spanish-American War; with \$1,000,000,000, the cost of the Boer War;

\$2,500,000,000, the cost of the Russo-Japanese War, and \$2,100 000,000, the cost of the two Balkan wars.

NATIONAL LOANS

Not all of the expense of the war is represented in the loans that have been made by various countries during the year. Some of the cost still remains unfunded. There have been, however, known loans of nearly \$14,000,000,000, including the recent British 4½-per cent. issue, which was subscribed to for \$3,000,000,000 by over 1,100,000 different individuals and institutions. The status of the national debts of the belligerents before the war and the approximate present condition of them are indicated below:

	Debt before the war.	Approximate debt now.
Great Britain	\$3,500,000,000	\$8,500,000,000
France	6,500,000,000	8,500,000,000
Russia	4,600,000,000	7,000,000,000
Italy	2,800,000,000	3,500,000,000
Germany	1,200,000,000	4,700,000,000
Austria-Hungary...	2,700,000,000	4,500,000,000
Turkey	750,000,000	1,000,000,000

INTEREST CHARGES

In the 1914 budget of the British Government the national debt service was placed at \$120,000,000. A large percentage of the loans outstanding were carrying 2½ and 2¾ per cent. interest. In April Great Britain issued a 3½-per cent. loan for \$1,750,000,000. It was expected that the loan just successfully closed would be made at 4 per cent. but the new Chancellor of the Exchequer, Reginald McKenna, had a larger scheme than that of raising new funds. His policy was to refund all of the former consols and even to take up the April loan, and as the old bonds were selling on a basis better than 4 per cent. to the investor it was necessary to adopt the revolutionary scheme of placing in England a 4½-per cent. loan, bearing the highest rate in a century. The national debt of Great Britain, therefore, before the war ends, will be carrying an average rate of interest of 4½ per cent., and the debt service will be fully \$300,000,000 per annum.

France has for years borrowed at 3 per cent. for rentes, though these have sold at a considerable discount from par. Her national defense bonds have carried a rate of 4 per cent. and loans made in this country have been at 5 per cent. and then at a discount. In 1914 the French national interest charge was \$260,000,000 and to-day it is probably not far from \$350,000,000. Ger-

many, with the smallest national debt of any of the great powers and a debt service of only \$60,000,000 per annum, in peace times borrowed on 3, 3½, and 4 per cent. Imperial Government issues. Her recent loans have been at the higher figure. With the outbreak of the war she authorized a 5-per cent. loan for \$865,000,000 and then a second 5-per cent. loan, which was subscribed for to the amount of \$2,160,000,000.

The cost in interest charges has, therefore, advanced 25 per cent. and between this figure and 35 per cent. is the average increase so far in the general interest charge when the difference between the depreciation in old issues and the yield on the new ones is taken into account. For instance, had Great Britain sought to borrow at 2½ per cent., she would not have been able to get a price of better than 60 for her consols and would have been paying over 4 per cent. for her capital. French 3-per cent. rentes are now selling under 70, compared with better than 90 before the war, and should France have undertaken a big loan in 3 per cents. the discount would have made her capital cost 4¼ per cent. German 3s and 4s are to-day at a discount from par of 30 to 40 points, which means that they are selling on a basis of between 5 and 5½ per cent. So Germany was forced to sell 5-per cent. bonds under par at about the equivalent of the old issue.

WHERE THE MONEY CAME FROM

Assuming the wealth of the countries at war to be \$400,000,000,000, we find that the cost of war for a year, relative to national wealth, is as follows: For Great Britain, 4 per cent.; Germany, 3.75 per cent.; France, 5.60 per cent.; Russia, 7 per cent.; Austria, 8 per cent.; and Italy, after a year from May 23, 6 per cent.

It has been said that a considerable part of the first year's cost of the war has been financed from liquid funds or reserves immediately available. For instance, in most of the countries, except Great Britain, savings-bank deposits have been largely drawn on for subscriptions to war loans. Taking the figures quoted on the cost of the war to the different belligerents we find that this cost has exceeded total savings in trustee and postal savings banks by these sums: Great Britain, \$1,800,000,000; France, \$1,800,000,000; Russia, \$2,000,000,000, and Italy, \$350,000,000, based on a full year of war. Austria-Hungary's savings cover the cost, while Germany shows a surplus of \$1,800,-

000,000 available in savings banks after the sum total of her two loans is subtracted.

The financial resources of Great Britain, however, are not represented in her savings banks. At the end of 1914 the deposits in the joint-stock banks of the United Kingdom and in the Bank of England together amounted to \$5,750,000,000. Obviously these represented the business of the country, or the funds on which commerce depended. But, when the July loan came to be analyzed, it was found that \$2,850,000,000 of it had been subscribed through the Bank of England, the average subscription being over \$5000, while the response through the post-office was \$75,000,000, with an average subscription of about \$130. No such amount has ever been put into a national loan at one time before, and in this operation another evidence of the record-breaking proportions of all aspects of the war has been given.

REVENUE FROM TAXATION

The larger these loans for war purposes become, the higher will the tax rate mount. For the year ending March 31, 1914, the revenue of the United Kingdom from property and income tax, including the super-tax, was \$236,250,000. Roughly this was \$5.60 per capita. For the year ending March 31, 1915, income from this source was \$346,500,000, or \$8.25 per capita. The 1916 budget provides for a revenue from this tax of \$515,000,000, or \$11.25 per capita. Some idea of what this means may be gained when it is stated that the income tax just paid in the United States was between \$85,000,000 and \$90,000,000, or from 85 cents to 90 cents per capita. The tax burden after the war will be tremendous. Following the Civil War in this country the interest requirements of the debt contracted were two and one-half times the national revenue, but by means of radical taxation revenue had increased ten-fold to \$520,000,000 shortly after the struggle ended.

HOW WILL ENGLAND MEET HER DEBT TO UNCLE SAM?

It is already being suggested that Great Britain may be forced to set up a protection wall in order to meet the greatly augmented expenses of the war. At the present time her monthly imports are exceeding exports by over \$200,000,000. From August 1, 1914, to June 30, 1915, the excess of her imports over exports was \$1,834,000,000. The problem of how to meet her debt to neutral countries, chiefly to the United States, is one that

so far has not been successfully worked out. Credits have been established, but in minimum degree. Probably \$500,000,000 of securities from all Europe have been sold back to American investors. Necessity for raising funds for the new British loan caused liquidation from London alone of between \$75,000,000 and \$100,000,000. The fact, however, that nearly \$3,000,000,000 was taken up indicates that England still has surplus funds. Normally she ought to save from her income \$2,500,000,000 per annum. A campaign of economy is now sweeping over the United Kingdom, but without material benefits so far as can be determined at this time.

The interest rate on the British loan was the highest paid since the Napoleonic wars. Should the struggle continue through the winter the proceeds of all of the loans, so

far made, will have been exhausted, and new capital will have to be commandeered. In this event it is quite probable that Great Britain will have to pay 5 per cent. for funds, France fully as much, Germany $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., for her last loan was on a basis of 5.30 per cent., Russia 6 per cent. or more, Austria $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 per cent., and some of the colonies from 6 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. This will make a world-wide readjustment in interest rates. The effect has already been shown, for example, in the need of New York City for paying $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest on her last loan, and in generally falling prices of bonds. The more remote effects and the extent to which American securities, still held abroad in the sum of at least \$3,000,000,000, will be displaced in exchange for foreign loans, cannot now be determined.

THE CHEMISTS' SIDE OF THE WAR

WHAT GERMAN CHEMISTS ARE DOING TO MAKE GERMANY
SELF-SUSTAINING

BY HUGO SCHWEITZER

[The chemists of Germany, no less than her financiers and military and naval experts, have been rendering remarkable services to their country during the war. Of equal importance with the raising of loans and armies, are the inventions of new food commodities and the finding of substitutes for metals and textiles, which have done so much toward making Germany, under the stress of war, a self-sustaining country. Dr. Hugo Schweitzer, a distinguished American chemist, who has had extended experience in Germany both as a scholar and as an industrial chemist, and who has also visited Germany since the opening of the war, sums up in the following article a number of the war emergency achievements of the German chemists.—THE EDITOR.]

GERMANY, deprived as she has been of many imports by the sea-power of England, has been transformed into a self-supporting country by the chemist. This achievement necessitated a readjustment along the whole line. Food for the people and fodder for animals had to be provided within the confines of the empire. Materials had to be manufactured which had hitherto been imported, and substitutes had to be improvised for raw materials cut off by the English blockade.

In no other field has German efficiency proven its superiority more than in that of chemistry. While this was undisputed before the present war, it is no exaggeration to state to-day that the German chemist has so far contributed as much, if not more, to the successes of the campaign than the strategists of the army and the navy, and that therefore

the present holocaust may be justly called "the chemists' war."

Not only have stupendous efforts been expended in the manufacture of artificial food-stuffs, but it is interesting to note how, under the stress of war conditions, use has been made of natural food materials which, even in Germany, where economy is practised to such a large extent, had hitherto been neglected.

MOBILIZING THE NATION'S FOOD RESOURCES

When the English blockade threatened to starve the women and children of the empire, a careful inventory of the natural resources was taken. It was ascertained that certain plants which had been regarded as useless weeds possessed considerable food value. Fourteen wild-growing vegetables were found which furnished substitutes for spin-

ach, while five plants supplied excellent materials for salads. But of still greater significance is the fact that nature offered nine varieties of roots rich in starch and affording wholesome aliment for man and beast. These unexpected sources of nutritive material will in the future further threaten our export trade with Germany, which has so largely consisted of foodstuffs.

TAKING OVER FRENCH AND BELGIAN CROPS

On the other hand, the following demonstration of efficiency is worthy of report:

Among the visitors to New York on the occasion of the International Congress of Applied Chemistry in 1912 were two professors of the agricultural High School in Berlin, Dr. Foth and Dr. Parow, who are well remembered by their American colleagues. Scarcely had the German army occupied Belgium and Northern France when Dr. Foth was called there to supervise the agricultural resources of the captured territory, and Dr. Parow was appointed to the same office in Russian Poland. Both scientists at once took charge of the sugar-beet and potato crops, and their utilization in the interest of the invading armies and the civilian population.

FINDING SUBSTITUTES FOR AMERICAN OILS

We have exported, in times past, large quantities of oil and fats to Germany,—especially animal fat from our slaughterhouse industries and cottonseed oil. By a treatment with hydrogen the German chemist transforms cheap grades of oils and fatty wastes of all kinds, and, most important of all, the fish oils of the Swedish and Norwegian fisheries, into edible fats.

There has also been extensive cultivation of the sunflower, the seed of which furnishes an excellent oil, which is already largely used for food purposes in Russia. As sunflowers grow almost anywhere, sufficient seed might be raised from which oil could be obtained as a substitute for American cottonseed oil. For Germany this oil would be of further advantage, for when mixed with the distillation products of lignite coal it affords excellent lubricants to replace our best cylinder oils, besides having other uses.

For this purpose Italian olive oil had already been imported during the war in large quantities, but this traffic is now interrupted, owing to Italy's entrance into the war.

As curiosities in the search for foodstuffs, we might further mention the attempt of the chemist to utilize the fresh blood of slaughtered animals, which contains highly nutri-

tious substances. Long before the war, bread made with the addition of fresh blood to the dough was eaten in some parts of Europe, especially in Finland. This tastes like black rye bread, is very nutritious, and very economical. It is interesting to note here that during certain religious festivals a confection consisting of chocolate and fresh blood is sold in Naples and eaten by the women.

FIBRES TAKING THE PLACE OF COTTON

The agricultural chemist has also undertaken the task of supplying Germany with a substitute for cotton,—which can no longer be procured from us. Although it is realized that there are enormous difficulties in the way, a great deal has already been accomplished. Paper spun into threads in special machines serves as a substitute for cotton and jute in the manufacture of bags, etc., which need not stand heavy wear and tear. For the manufacture of guncotton, cellulose is employed which is produced from wood pulp by the various refining processes now in use. It is possible to make in this way a cellulose that for many purposes is superior to cotton fibre.

It has already been known for years that for the manufacture of celluloid,—a nitrated cellulose,—certain tissue papers give better results than cotton.

Millions of bales of cotton which might have relieved the congested American market, and might have yielded large profits to our Southern farmers, instead of lying in our warehouses or on our piers, might have gone up in smoke as smokeless powder, if the Germans could have imported them and employed them in making guncotton.

Even in war-time people must think of such frivolous things as clothes, and the German chemists are hard put to it to improvise substitutes for the ordinary cotton fabrics. And they have made marked progress in this respect. The nettle fibre, which was largely used in Europe as a textile material prior to the introduction of cotton, has again attracted much attention. Most interesting reports are being published and patents are being taken out for the utilization of the bast fibre of willow bark. Willow boughs are valued as material for weaving baskets.

WILLOW-BARK FIBRE AS A TEXTILE

A special school for the cultivation of willow trees,—a remarkable demonstration of German efficiency,—exists in Graudenz, West Prussia. Director Brickwedel, of this

school, about ten years ago suggested the use of the bast fibre of willow bark as a textile fibre, inasmuch as he found it to be very strong and of fine structure. It surpasses hemp fibre, and closely approaches cotton fibre in purity and tensile strength. According to the patented processes the bark is first spread and dried, either by exposure to the air and sun or to artificial heat in a drying-room. It is packed in small bales, which may be kept for years without injury or decomposition. The bark is then treated in an alkaline bath for about five to eight hours, dried and freed from tannin, and mechanically freed from wooden fibres, like hemp and flax. The fibre thus obtained forms an excellent substitute for cotton and is especially recommended for surgical purposes, as it possesses great power of absorption. It also furnishes an excellent paper.

CAN GERMANY DEPOSE KING COTTON?

All these endeavors to find substitutes for cotton may appear ridiculous to us who have been brought up with the idea that "Cotton is King" and that we are destined for all time to supply this fibre to the civilized world. The farmers who cultivated the madder root and the planters who raised indigo were also inclined to jest when they were apprised of the fact that German chemists had succeeded in reproducing in the laboratories the dyes which their crops furnished. But when the manufactured materials drove the natural products from the markets and left the farmers and planters without a job, hilarity ceased.

History may repeat itself, and willow bark and nettle or some other substitute raised on German soil may in the near future threaten the supremacy of King Cotton. The German chemist has a duty to perform, and with his perseverance and application he does not shrink from any problem, however difficult it might appear to outsiders.

CULTIVATING THE SILKWORM

The rearing of silkworms and the production of silk are also undertaken with great zeal. Mulberry trees, the leaves of which are fed to the caterpillars, thrive very well in South Germany and in the Rhine-province. This industry is to be developed not so much to make Germany independent of the importation of raw silk as for the reason that this occupation offers easy and profitable work to war cripples and invalids, —work which can be done in about six weeks of the year.

ARTIFICIAL CAMPHOR IN PLACE OF THE JAPANESE PRODUCT

The chemist has also succeeded in replacing the product of the camphor tree, which before the war had been obtained from Japan, and is of so great importance in medicine and in the manufacture of smokeless powders. It is now made artificially in the factory, and it has been found that synthetic camphor not only surpasses the natural in medicinal efficiency, but that it is of greater purity, a stronger disinfectant, and cheaper, at least as long as war prices prevail.

PERHAPS ARTIFICIAL RUBBER, ALSO

The German chemist, who has already solved the problem of manufacturing synthetic rubber, will perhaps also tackle the problem of making Germany independent of rubber imports in another direction. The milkweed plant, which belongs to the *Asclepias* family, furnishes a latex which resembles that of the cheaper grades of rubber. Although the amount of rubber is small and the quality poor, yet the chemist need not despair if he remembers that the sugar-beet first used in sugar-making contained only 4 per cent. of a not very superior grade of sugar, while to-day it furnishes 22 to 24 per cent. of sugar of such high quality that it cannot be distinguished from the finest cane-sugar.

REPLACING COPPER WITH IRON AND ZINC

Great ingenuity is displayed by the metallurgical chemist in replacing copper by other metals. As a result, the consumption of copper for war purposes and for the arts is considerably reduced. With its inexhaustible supply of iron and steel, its wealth of zinc, and its domestic supply of copper amounting to an annual production of 40,000 tons, Germany is in an excellent position to manufacture substitutes for copper. Gun and rifle cartridges and the fuse-heads of grenades are made of soft iron with a small percentage of copper and zinc. Buttons, button-facings for helmets, and belt-buckles, which were formerly made of brass, are now made of alloys free from copper.

In the electrical industry iron and steel-wire are used exclusively. Long-distance electric power transmissions are being conducted over steel cables; and cables are also manufactured of aluminum.

In machinery construction and journal bearings brass is entirely replaced by steel and iron. Instead of massive bronze, hollow

bronze castings or iron- or steel-castings, coated or covered with bronze, are employed.

ALUMINUM AN IMPORTANT SUBSTITUTE FOR COPPER

Next to steel and iron, aluminum and magnesium play a prominent part as substitutes for copper. It has been found that an aluminum-magnesium alloy possesses great advantages over the latter as an electric conductor. Magnesium is said to be useful for many purposes for which aluminum is being employed to-day. This is a very important discovery because Germany has enormous supplies of magnesium chloride, a by-product of the potash industry, which has been considered worthless up to now. Two large factories, started during the war, are now producing magnesium.

While magnesium may thus be obtained from a domestic source, aluminum has been hitherto made from bauxite, a mineral imported from France. The necessities of the war forced the chemist to look for a domestic raw material for this important metal. He now uses a cheaper grade of bauxite found in Carinthia, Dalmatia, and Hungary. But more wonderful still, he has succeeded in extracting from cheap clays which are found in great abundance throughout Germany a pure alumina which serves as an excellent raw material for the manufacture of aluminum.

According to a statement in the *London Times* of January 15th, 1915, aluminum has been employed on most of the more important power-transmission lines of recent years, the two largest power-plants in the world being equipped with aluminum conductors exclusively, one alone absorbing nearly 3000 tons of the metal. Aluminum is also used largely for short-distance power distribution in central stations, railways, etc.; the whole of the feeder connections in the new Westminster (London) power-station, for instance, consist of aluminum, while the entire insulated feeder system of the Paris tramways is made of the same metal, the latter absorbing several hundred tons.

It is of interest to record that Captain Scott, of Antarctic fame, employed aluminum wire for the portable telephone installation which he took with him to the South Pole.

THE CHEMIST IN THE MUNITIONS BUSINESS

Actual implements of war in the manufacture of which the chemist exhibits his remarkable ingenuity are the various kinds of gunpowder, explosives and primers used in cartridges, grenades, shrapnels, bombs, tor-

pedoes, and the like. Each of these instruments of destruction requires special grades and mixtures of smokeless powder and of high explosives, such as picric acid, trotyl (T. N. T.), etc. All these materials are produced from nitric acid, on the one hand, and cotton, carbolic acid, and toluol on the other.

Nitric acid is generally prepared from Chile saltpeter and sulfuric acid; but in Norway, as described above, it is made from nitrogen of the air, and in Germany from ammonia and calcium cyanamide, which themselves are obtained from the nitrogen of the air.

These recently developed sources assure to Germany an unlimited supply of nitric acid not only for all war purposes, but for general industrial use.

Germany has also an inexhaustible supply of benzol and toluol owing to her vast coking industries in which these materials are recovered as by-products. As regards cotton, however, there is a great deficiency and, as stated before, the various kinds of refined cellulose and paper now serve for the production of smokeless powder.

THE POISON-GAS BOMBS

No discussion of this subject would be complete without a mention of the most modern instruments of war devised by the chemists, namely, the poison-gas bombs, the fire liquids, and the incendiary bombs.

At about the middle of last February the war correspondents reported that the French were using a material called Turpinit, after its inventor, Turpin, which was described as a most deadly weapon. It was said to asphyxiate the soldiers in the trenches, and its explosion near a herd of cows killed the animals so instantaneously that though dead they were found in a standing position presenting all the appearances of life. The dead soldiers in the trenches also remained in the attitudes which they had assumed at the very moment they were overwhelmed by the poison gas.

The gas seems to have been a nitrous-oxide-compound similar to that employed in medicine as an anesthetic.

About the end of April, the Germans began to use poison gas which, according to the journalistic reports, appears to be liquefied chlorine.

Nothing has as yet been published about the fiery liquids which the belligerents are using, but concerning the composition of the incendiary bombs dropped upon London, a

coroner's inquest gives the following details: fertilizer. It has always been recovered as

The bombs contained an explosive called Thermit. It gave off enormous heat, as much as 5000°, and set everything on fire that it touched. Thermit is a mixture of powdered aluminum and magnetic iron oxide used in welding iron and steel and in repairing broken steel-castings. When this mixture is ignited, the oxygen leaves the iron and combines violently with the aluminum, producing a slag which rises to the surface, the molten steel sinking to the bottom. The heat evolved by the reaction is enormous, and a temperature can be obtained second only to that of the electric arc.

GERMANY TO FEED HER OWN CATTLE

But the most remarkable results have been achieved in agricultural chemistry, and nothing has been of greater consequence than the method by which Germany will render herself perhaps permanently independent of imported fodder, for which she was obliged to expend annually 250 millions of dollars. Most of this money went to the United States for so-called concentrated feed,—cottonseed-oil-cakes, corn-oil-cakes and similar by-products,—the export of which has contributed largely to the profits of the agricultural industries of our country and therefore to the prosperity of our farmers, especially those of the South and Middle West.

It will be of general interest to describe how this great deed was accomplished. It has been known for some time that in the process of fermentation, that is, the conversion of sugars into alcohol by means of certain lower orders of plants, such as yeast, albuminous substances are generated by the growth of the yeast, which are of value as a food for human beings and as fodder. The only trouble was the small yield of albumen, which made the process unprofitable. Favorable results, however, were obtained by carrying out the fermentation in the presence of sulfate of ammonia as a source of nitrogen, which by the metabolism of the yeast is converted from its inorganic into its organic form (albumen).

From 100 parts of sugar as much as 100 parts of water-free dry yeast were obtained. Yet even these incredible yields and the fact that Germany is the largest producer of sugar in the world would have availed nothing if sulfate of ammonium, the nutrient of the yeast, could not be procured at an economical cost.

NITROGEN FERTILIZER FROM THE AIR

But chemical ingenuity also provided domestic sources for this material which is likewise employed very largely as a nitrogen

a by-product in the coking of coal, an industry in which Germany leads the world. But lately it has been produced on an extremely large scale by direct combination of hydrogen and nitrogen contained in the air, as carried out exclusively in Germany. We have here the most interesting and most direct transformation of nitrogen from the air into food albumen. Compare it with the complex and tedious conversion of fodder plants into cattle, and cattle into human food, and think of the newly created possibilities! Consider that yeast plants develop very quickly and attain their full growth within a few days, that they thrive in any kind of receptacle independent of rain or shine, that they need no light and can be grown all the year around!

A CHEAP NEW FOOD YEAST

Besides its value as an economical substitute for animal albumen, yeast will be preferred by many people who have an aversion to meat or who consider the slaughter of animals for food purposes cruel and disgusting. Its importance will be further realized by bearing in mind that it affords the vegetarian the required amount of an albumen which as regards nutritive properties is even superior to meat albumen since it contains 2 per cent. of lecithin, which is of great value as a nerve food and tonic, and vitamins which are so necessary for nutrition.

As far as the price of this yeast is concerned, it is stated that the amount purchasable with 1 mark (24 cents) yields 904 calories, while 1 mark's worth of beef gives only 623 calories, and that one pound of dry yeast is equivalent to 3.3 pounds of medium beef.

WITH CHEAP POWER GERMANY PRODUCES A UNIVERSAL FERTILIZER

As mentioned above, the economic production of the new food yeast could not possibly have been of such enormous importance if the German chemists had not also provided in the nitrogen from the air a new and profitable source for the manufacture of sulfate of ammonium. Hitherto atmospheric nitrogen could be utilized only where cheap water-power was available, and therefore, large plants were established in Norway, where the cost of power per certain units was about \$4.50 compared with \$18.00 in Niagara Falls.

Owing to the existence of certain inexhaustible deposits of lignite coal, the Ger-

mans are able to produce the same unit at \$7.50, a price which at first sight is higher than that of Norway, but in reality means greater cheapness all around. There is hardly any industrial development in Norway, and almost all chemicals and apparatus must be imported and the finished products exported. As this is not necessary in Germany, where in addition to a highly organized industry there exists the most perfect and cheapest inland water transportation system, the price of \$7.50 compared with \$4.50 in Norway is actually cheaper.

With this cheap power Germany has been able to produce new nitrogen compounds which threaten to revolutionize our present system of fertilization. This industry, to which the war has given the impetus, has assumed such dimensions and has given such unexpected results, that the government requested the German parliament to grant an imperial nitrogen monopoly. From the official documents, it appears that chemical compounds have been discovered which allow the production of a *universal fertilizer*.

That this scientific achievement will prove of momentous importance appears from the fact that the giant chemical works which supply the world with dyestuffs, synthetic remedies, and other coal-tar products, have become important factors in the fertilizer industry of Germany.

The peace negotiations may very likely culminate in the conclusion of commercial treaties between the nations. What an enormous power will be exercised by that country, which, possessing such a universal fertilizer and practically a world-wide monopoly of potash salts, will have something to sell that every farmer in the civilized world absolutely requires!

There will be a big rush for the Teutonic band-wagon and all the ideas of a nation boycott of the Germans, or of ostracism of Germany's traders and manufacturers, will quickly vanish in thin air.

PRODUCING SULFURIC ACID WITH DOMESTIC MINERALS

In the synthesis of ammonia, either pure ammonia itself or ammonium carbonate is obtained, which must be changed into sulfate of ammonium, for which conversion sulfuric acid is necessary. This latter product is manufactured in Germany from Spanish ores or from sulfur imported from the United States.

The exigencies of the war caused the testing of a known theoretical reaction on a

factory scale and as a result, domestic minerals consisting of sulfate of calcium (gypsum) and sulfate of magnesium, of which Germany owns inexhaustible supplies,—by simple chemical transposition,—without the use of foreign merchandise and without the trouble of manufacturing sulfuric acid, furnish this material for sulfate of ammonium.

The German chemists went even one step further and succeeded in substituting these domestic minerals for the Spanish ores and American sulfur in the production of sulfuric acid itself, which is most indispensable in all chemical enterprises, and thus the German chemist rendered his country independent of foreign trade conditions in this most vital branch of his profession.

THE WAR MAKING GERMANY INDUSTRIALLY INDEPENDENT

Thus the horrors of war, through the ingenuity of the German chemists, are promoting the legitimate industry of the nation, rendering it more and more independent of foreign conditions, and keeping in the country vast sums formerly spent for imports. Unfortunately and unexpectedly, we cannot record similar advantages for the United States, although we are enjoying peace. On the contrary, our legitimate industries are suffering on account of the war and are being seriously injured by the vast contracts for arms and ammunition placed with us. The demand for certain chemicals by the manufacturers of ammunition is so great, and prices have risen to such a height, that regular articles of commerce cannot be produced. Sulfuric and nitric acid can hardly be purchased to-day because the available supplies have been contracted for in order to produce high explosives such as picric acid and trinitrotoluol. Carbolic acid, our most common, most effective, and cheapest disinfectant, which unfortunately is also the starting material for picric acid, has become well nigh a luxury. Previous to the war it sold at 9 cents per pound; to-day a pound of it commands \$1.50.

The profits arising from the export of arms and ammunition only somewhat offset the enormous losses of our regular industries. The longer the war lasts, the more our trade and manufactures at large will suffer, and the greater will be the unemployment of labor. A quick ending of the war is our only salvation; and no measure will restore peace more quickly than an embargo by our Government on *all* exports to *all* belligerent nations.

MR. BRYAN'S POSITION

A SOUTHERN EDITOR'S VIEW OF WAR AND PEACE

BY GEORGE F. MILTON

[Mr. George Fort Milton is one of the best representatives of the vigorous Southern journalism of the present day. His views as expressed in this article are his own, as are those of our other contributors, and are not printed here as setting forth the editorial views of this periodical. Mr. Milton is the editor and publisher of the *Chattanooga (Tenn.) News*, and is one of the leading figures in the Democratic party of his State. He has been a delegate to several national Democratic conventions, and voted for Wilson on every ballot in the Baltimore convention of 1912. He was an officer in the Spanish-American War, is interested in educational affairs, and has written much about the present great war for his own newspaper. He has undoubtedly a wide understanding of public opinion in the South and portions of the West. He is one of many able and typical men educated at the University of the South (Sewanee, Tenn.).—THE EDITOR]

MR. BRYAN'S resignation from the office of Secretary of State, like many other incidents of his remarkable career, furnished the signal for a chorus of newspaper attacks on him. Probably nine-tenths of these showed lamentable lack of appreciation of his reasons and ignorance of the international situation. Many editors discovered in the incident an opportunity to belabor a political leader whom they had been fighting since he first appeared in politics, and even in a grave crisis such as the country faced they could not resist the temptation to wreak petty political revenge on their adversary, who they thought at last had been discomfited.

But even some of Mr. Bryan's best friends also jumped to unwarrantable conclusions and wore sorrowful countenances, such as are observed at political funerals.

Now, however, that more than a month has elapsed it is more easily possible to reach a viewpoint from which a correct perspective of the incident may be secured.

MR. BRYAN'S SO-CALLED "MISTAKES"

Indeed caution may always be properly exercised before pronouncing adversely on acts of Mr. Bryan, for so often those at first catalogued as mistakes have proven otherwise.

For instance, the quantitative theory of money which he defended in 1896 is written into the currency law of 1914.

His campaign against imperialism in 1900 is bearing fruit in the pledge of the present administration for the independence of the Philippines.

In 1908 he advocated railroad rate regulation, but predicted that government ownership of railroad and telegraph lines probably

would be necessary. It is likely this frankness lost him the Presidency, but the Government now is building a railroad in Alaska and also favors the purchase of telegraph and telephone lines.

Against intense opposition he secured the adoption of constitutional amendments for the income tax and for popular election of Senators.

Incident to his course at the Baltimore National Democratic Convention he was denounced as unwise, a party disorganizer, and general nuisance. This was because he opposed Judge Parker for chairman, favored a resolution directed against Ryan, Belmont, and Murphy, and insisted that Tammany should not control the nomination of a candidate. Feeling ran high against him, but when the country had been heard from the delegates fell into line for what Mr. Bryan favored and a golden era of progressive Democracy became possible.

So, experience has very clearly shown that it will not do hastily to class one of Mr. Bryan's often surprising and sometimes radical acts as that of an unsafe leader. Although at times he has been in error, more often he has been proved right and his courage and leadership for new things have been of incalculable value.

HIS AID TO THE ADMINISTRATION

No one, in fact, experienced greater change of view regarding Mr. Bryan than the President himself. Once he wished him "knocked into a cocked hat." As time went on, however, the views of the two men approached more closely and each came to have appreciation of the services the other was rendering.

Unquestionably the Nebraskan, more than any other public leader, produced the great political revolution in the country which found its expression finally in the Baltimore platform. There were strong reactionary elements in both parties and at Chicago they controlled, but at the Democratic gathering they were completely beaten. Mr. Wilson was nominated not only on account of his worth, but also because he had declined to permit "the interests" to finance his campaign and shared Mr. Bryan's views as to the impropriety of selecting Judge Parker for chairman. The Democratic party will go to the country next year for its verdict of approval or disapproval, depending on the record made in accordance with platform pledges, and that the record is good is due to a large extent to the loyal assistance given Mr. Bryan while the President's premier. The two men evidently were sincere in their expressions of mutual esteem when they parted and no more severe blow could be struck the Democratic party than that marplots should succeed in producing a breach between them.

WHY HE RESIGNED

From personal acquaintance with Mr. Bryan and study of his life and character I venture to assign as the principal reasons for his resignation the following:

Our country had established, in the thirty treaties negotiated with foreign countries the principle which in his opinion should govern in our affairs with Germany,—that is, that there should be a period of delay and investigation before final action. Germany had accepted the principle as embodied in the thirty treaties and suggested arbitration. We would have been compelled to follow this course if the representations had been with Great Britain, which country had ratified one of the treaties.

But despite the difference of opinion with his chief I am nevertheless inclined to the belief that Mr. Bryan would have found some way to conciliate these differences, as undoubtedly he did with the first note, but for the fact that he felt the press of the country was rapidly rushing us into war and that, therefore, it was necessary for him to meet this menace and by obtaining the ear of the nation offset the influence of this jingo publicity. In the July number of this REVIEW the editor discusses intelligently and none too harshly the sensational manner in which the newspapers, especially the metropolitan press, at that time were promoting their war propaganda. The record makes an ugly page in the history of American journalism.

Before leaving the cabinet Mr. Bryan secured considerable modification of the second note. But we were still traveling the ultimatum route and there was a bellicose feeling apparent in both countries. He could see but one result. If the people were not in some way reached and their sentiments for peace aroused and expressed there would be war. He determined, therefore, at whatever cost to throw himself into the breach. The result was anti-climax. Probably Mr. Bryan himself did not foresee just what would be the immediate effect. What did happen was this: Immediately Mr. Bryan became the target, instead of the Kaiser. There was another head to hit. They hit it. As many shillalabs were raised as at the famed Donnybrook Fair. Also our German-American friends were given pause. They were astounded that any father-in-law of a British officer could be neutral. They began to apologize, saying they might have been mistaken as to the President also. Their kinsmen across the water also became more polite. Soon it was evident that a peaceful solution of the *Lusitania* incident was likely.

Following Germany's reply to our second note there was a slight flare-up of the jingo spirit in the press; but a number of very influential papers were more conservative than in the case of the first note and even the most immoderate, with not many exceptions, calmed down in a few days. The astonishing news was carried under a Washington date line shortly afterward that the new Secretary of State and the German Ambassador were considering mediation,—Mr. Bryan's views prevailing again.

As a private citizen Mr. Bryan occupies the position in which he always has been and now again is of greater service to the country. His immediate work before the nation and the world is to make something more than "scraps of paper" of the treaties he has negotiated, and on which history will judge his career as Secretary of State. There must be a sentiment behind these treaties or in case of any incident affecting the national honor in public opinion the prediction of Mr. Roosevelt will come true and no attention will be paid to them. It is true we had no such treaty with Germany, but that country had accepted the principle, and again proposed to abide by it. If we are bound by solemn treaties to arbitrate with any one of thirty countries of the world, how may we consistently refuse similar peaceful conciliation between a friendly country and ourselves, even if no treaty actually has been signed?

AMERICAN SYMPTOMS OF WAR FEVER

One reason for the change in public view, —and the main reason,—is that we are being tremendously influenced by what is going on abroad. As gladiatorial spectacles made Rome callous to suffering so we may not, without becoming more or less indifferent and brutalized, look on these life-and-death struggles which are making shambles of the war zones of Europe. Unconsciously also we are adopting the military point of view and theories formerly held are now dubbed Utopian. We are exhibiting some of the symptoms of that hysteria which frightened each of the countries with the belief that it was about to be attacked by the enemy, and caused it to redouble preparations for national defense, so that when the day of ultimatums came each was confident of strength and the cataclysm was certain. All of this plays into the hands of our own military party, and such thoughts, of course, are selfishly encouraged by makers of ammunition and other munitions of war, ship-builders, rifle-makers, aeroplane and submarine constructors and by all the many interests which expect in one way or another to profit financially by war.

Our observations of the scenes abroad, too, have swayed us from neutrality and aroused prejudices old or new.

Language, of course, is the strongest of influences. Nearly all our people read English only. The history and literature in that language are accessible to every fairly well educated person. In addition the laws, customs, social and religious influences of the Anglo-Saxon are strong with us. The larger proportion of our foreign commerce is with countries under the British flag and English capital in immense sums has been invested here. So we have absorbed from English writers their views of history and politics and the reasons they assign for the war and their reports of its progress.

The German military machine is held up before us as the juggernaut crushing civilization while the British naval machine, even though denying us the freedom of the seas, is described as almost a beneficent institution and an instrument for the fulfillment of Anglo-Saxon destiny.

Therefore, not even on the Fourth of July do we any longer twist the lion's tail and there are some presumably patriotic citizens who look with no disfavor on the possible actual union of the two countries.

As for the actual events of the conflict to date, the situation even more strongly tends to misconception. We are informed of only

what the London censor allows to pass his blue pencil. Even German official dispatches are edited in London. When we add to the above the fact that the average American newspaper reader gets his information only from the headlines written over these mutilated dispatches we may know how likely public opinion on the subject may be ignorant or prejudiced.

Nor did Teutonic behavior improve the situation. The German press was bitter and untactful. So at the time the *Lusitania* was sunk our minds were almost without recollection that we were committed to the principle of arbitration; and we were as restless under such suggestion as was Austria-Hungary when the Archduke and consort were killed.

All of which may well justify the query, Is there any assurance that the psychological influences which make ready for war will not attack us even more alarmingly?

ONE-SIDED INFORMATION

It is as difficult for us to get our facts straight as it is for those peoples each of whom is shedding its blood and giving its treasure, in every case contending that they fight for national preservation. Austria characterizes the dastardly crime at Serajevo as part of the Pan-Serbian program. The *Entente* powers charge that Bernhardt's bloody counsel finally had won. The Kaiser displays as proof of his rectitude of purpose the telegrams signed "Willie," addressed to "Georgie" and "Nickie" and pleading for a stop to Russian mobilization. Sir Edward Grey's eloquence moved the Commons when he denounced Von Jagow's "scrap of paper" interview, but the "Thunderer" since has admitted that England went to war in her own interest. "The Sick Man" now healthily defends the Bosphorus against former allies who would make of it a present to their quondam enemy, and the Kaiser, recognizing that some Christian nation always has been the friend of the "unspeakable Turk," is now the most puissant defender of Islam.

We hear much of the neutrality of Belgium, nothing of that of China or violations of neutrality within the three-mile limit of the coasts of Chile or Sweden. For "Deutschland Ueber Alles" as an Oliver "Rule Britannia" is an ancient Roland. We hear much of "national aspirations" and "places in the sun." These words are more easily rolled than land robber and territorial greed. One fat, middle-aged expansionist has taken all he thinks worth having and is satisfied and virtuous. Another, a vigorous youth, bursting out of his breeches, justifies

predatory ambitions by what he argues is necessity.

Truth is, the whole complicated system, built up by methods of diplomacy such as were practised by Talleyrand and Metternich in the Congress of Vienna in 1815, and based on alliances such as that by which Edward VII sacrificed the advantages of English insular isolation, was bound to result in war. In fact these countries are not only in war now, but they have been since their military establishments attained to such size. The dawn was to bring the last phase of the conflict.

What is taking place should not excite us to emulate the examples of these countries. On the contrary it should give solemn warning.

In every one of these lands the minds of the people are absorbed in the business of hunting the enemy. Men work in packs with wolf-like instinct seeking their prey. Brain curtains of whole nations show only war. All their inventive skill is bent on the creation of engines of destruction,—not construction,—and all their energies concentrated in their use. It is one recurring struggle between defense and offense. The learned men, the leaders in every line, who were making for the advancement of civilization, give their bodies along with those less endowed for no better purpose than the fertilization of the soil. When it is all over nations possibly may dig down into their stockings for billion-dollar indemnities; they may repair some of the damage, but they cannot call back these brains.

By far the heaviest cost will be in the national hatreds engendered. And the pity is that some of these are directed against us. Germany curses us for wounds infected with gas gangrene from shells made in America. Deeply to be regretted is it that we were not as far-sighted as Brazil, Switzerland, and some other countries which realized that such trade would become unneutral.

There are two remedies for the conditions making for future wars thinkable, neither of which has a remote chance of being applied. One is a strike by the women of these countries against being used to breed future armies or to encourage this sort of "patriotism." The other is that the working classes shall develop a patriotism for real democracy and cease to offer themselves as military serfs. But the political rulers know their game. The child at its mother's knee is taught the national hatreds and dedicated as an offering on the altar of Mars. Schools,

press, all the thought-moulding influences shape the raw material. If our crop of misinformation is large theirs is beyond comparison larger.

VALUE OF ARBITRATION

The difficulty in the way of substituting psychological influences which will turn the current of national thought to subjects of peace seems immeasurably great, but surely international arbitration would be a step in the right direction. It would permit nations, so to speak, to count ten when angry as Jefferson advised individuals to do. At one time the code of honor required personal encounters to settle differences of opinion. This age has passed. Perhaps it will pass with nations, too.

Everyday it seems more likely that as Jean de Bloch predicted the war will result in a stalemate. Nor will the standing armies or floating navies be removed as menaces. Therefore it is even more important that the greatest of neutral nations, indeed the greatest of all nations, shall adhere to such principles as Mr. Bryan advocates. At a time when the ethics of so-called Christian nations show such complete breaking down from any code of conduct remotely related to that urged in the Sermon on the Mount our own steadfastness in support of some at least of these moral laws is the remaining hope of Christianity. Are we likely to be accepted as mediator if we do not retain the friendship of all nations?

No greater misfortune not only to our own country but to all the world could occur than our entrance into this war. Immediately we would be compelled to enter into an alliance with England, from which we could never withdraw. Without our restraining influence the present war will be followed by a series of struggles between original Teuton and its vigorous branch for world control. A breaking down in civilization such as followed the fall of Rome might even be threatened.

There is no sentiment in this country for "peace at any price." When that which really constitutes the nation's honor is ever again attacked or any effort made to destroy our liberties there will be no question of our willingness to go to war any more than at any time in the past. Sometimes a nation just as an individual shows itself braver if it refuses to fight than if it is as quarrelsome as the bar-room bravo. And peace nearly always is far less costly, more honorable, and more in the interest of humanity than war.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

IRRESOLUTE RUMANIA

WRITING in the *Contemporary Review* for July, Dr. E. J. Dillon, who has long made a special study of the politics of the Near East, passes interesting comment (of course, from the British viewpoint) on the psychology of the Balkan States, the Rumanian leader, Bratiano, whom Dr. Dillon designates as "virtually the dictator of Rumania in the same sense and to a like extent that Giolitti was the dictator of Italy," Rumania's territorial demands in the present crisis, and her opportunity.

Of John Bratiano, chief of the Rumanian Liberal party, Dr. Dillon says that as the son of an eminent and respected statesman he entered public life "encircled by the halo of his father's prestige. Gifted with considerable powers, he owes more to birth than to hard work and self-discipline." He has become the real ruler of Rumania with a minimum of effort on his part. If he should declare war against Austria, Dr. Dillon believes that the decision would be generally acclaimed throughout Rumania. Just how far Bratiano can go in subordinating national ideals to party and personal interests Dr. Dillon does not pretend to say. He is inclined to believe that the weight of such public opinion and sentiment as exist in Rumania is on the side of the opposition leader, Take Jonescu, who would merge Rumania's territorial demands in the higher aims of the civilized peoples of Europe, and having helped to secure these, to establish a moral claim.

Rumania's position at the present juncture of her fortunes is summarized in the following imaginary statement attributed by Dr. Dillon to Premier Bratiano himself:

"The choice between belligerency and neutrality must be determined solely by the balance of territorial advantages which is offered by each. We cannot afford to repeat the mistake we made at the time of the Russo-Turkish war, when, in return for heavy sacrifices of blood and money, we were bereft of one of our most fertile provinces and were given a barren tract of land with indefensible frontiers and the undying enmity of its Bulgarian owners. This time there must be advantageous terms clearly specified, adequately

guaranteed, and unless they outweigh those which we can obtain from the other side in return for mere inaction, we shall feel it our duty to reject them."

In his conversation with the Russian minister at Bucharest, the Premier made these demands: Transylvania, part of the Banat of Temsvar, the Rumanian districts of Bukovina, and of the two provinces of Crishana and Marmaros. As Dr. Dillon views the matter, these demands do not seem unfair or immoderate.

In regard to the practical possibilities of a Rumanian campaign Dr. Dillon finds that the nation now has it in her power to put in the field about half a million men. In the first line she could place about six army corps, numbering some 300,000 soldiers in all. Dr. Dillon thinks, however, that the value of these troops as a contribution to the conflict would be trebled at the present moment by the strategical position they would occupy, stretching out a hand to the Russians in the direction of Bukovina and pressing the Austro-Hungarians on their flank. It is well to appreciate this advantage at its full value, but by asking too much in terms of territorial concessions it is Dr. Dillon's opinion that the Rumanian Premier runs the danger of obtaining much less than is now offered. "The hour for a decision has struck, because the present conjuncture enables the Rumanians to offer the highest measure of help to the Allies and to secure the largest returns. No state, not even Serbia, will gain as much by so little outlay as Rumania."

To support his contention that delay is dangerous and may prove fatal, Dr. Dillon suggests two conceivable consummations, either of which would materially change the conditions of the war in the east of Europe and impair the worth of Rumania's assistance:

Suppose the Teutons contrive to drive the Russian clean out of Eastern Galicia, or even to immobilize their forces there, Austria, freed from the Slav incubus, would be in a position to fortify herself in Transylvania so effectually as to render the conquest of that province a task which would

dismay not only those army chiefs who are at present in favor of remaining inactive, but also those who are impatient to liberate their Rumanian brethren from the misrule of Vienna and Budapest. And this state of things, of which an account would have to be rendered, not to any foreign state, but to M. Bratiano's own countrymen, is hardly the goal towards which a common-sense leader would deliberately strive. To risk the whole for the sake of a small part is not a speculation worthy of a statesman.

The other eventuality is a decisive Russian success in Galicia, the reoccupation of Bukovina, and such a strong military position as would render Rumania's co-operation superfluous. What would then happen hardly needs explicit mention. Political motives, which Hungary,—who is determined to outlive the present European cataclysm at any and every cost,—would not be slow to supply, might move the Allies regretfully to make terms with that state which would leave the Rumanian frontiers where they are to-day.

AMERICA'S RIGHTS AS A NEUTRAL

PROFESSOR CHARLES CHENEY HYDE, who occupies the chair of International Law in Northwestern University, discussing the "Rights of the United States as a Neutral," in the current issue of the *Yale Review*, sets forth clearly, calmly, dispassionately,—albeit from the position of an avowed advocate of the United States,—what are believed to be certain elements of strength in its position as a neutral; analyzes carefully the grievous violations of the rights of neutrals by both Germany and Great Britain in the present war; and points out the urgent necessity, not only for the welfare of America but also that of all civilization, of devising ways and means to put an end to existing practises. To accomplish that end, he holds, the co-operation of other neutral states is indispensable.

His paper, of course, was published before the receipt in this country of Germany's latest note on the *Lusitania* issue. But that makes no matter. There is nothing in that document that could have caused Professor Hyde to change what he had written.

The first and greatest element of strength in the American position is that, throughout diplomatic discussions the United States has placed reliance upon international law, "signifying thereby not the views of college professors, or of text writers, or of military experts, but rather the evidence of the general consent of maritime states, manifest in the practise of nations in previous wars and observed from a sense of legal obligation."

It is contended to-day in Europe that existing modes of warfare made possible by new weapons of offense, such as the submarine, the automatic contact mine, and the aeroplane, not only justify unprecedented measures against an enemy, but also substantially impair the right of neutral ships to enjoy the freedom of the seas.

The contention that, because of both the limitations and the potentialities of the submarine, neutral ships traverse at their peril

the area in which the submarine operates, Professor Hyde says resembles that of the automobilist who declares to the pedestrian:

"The highways are mine now; I cannot utilize the power of my engine and assure you of safety. Whatever the law used to be, I recognize the validity of none to-day that gives you an equal right with me; for such a law would not be responsive to my power or my need. Henceforth you cross the highways at your own peril."

Not merely on the soundness or unsoundness of such reasoning, but rather on the actual weight which civilization to-day attaches to it, hang momentous issues. Neutral nations must examine it and deal with it on its merits. Says Mr. Hyde:

The Department of State has already shown with clearness and force that the possession of no new weapon of offense can alter a practise which for generations has made the high seas free and safe for neutral ships. International law has come into being and developed side by side with the invention and use of instruments of destruction. The former has not regarded the latter as the criterion of belligerent rights. Hence it may be fairly asserted that the duty of a belligerent to control, with respect to neutrals, the operation of the newest weapons of offense, is no suddenly devised and ill-conceived formula suggested by the letter rather than the spirit of former inapplicable practises, but rather the natural application of a principle founded on the requirements of justice, and therefore hitherto accorded universal recognition.

After reviewing the diplomatic exchanges between the two governments since the United States "felt the sting of the German submarine on the high seas," he points out that

Thus, the United States does not appear to challenge the right of Germany to engage in submarine warfare against the armed vessels of its enemies, or against the unarmed merchantmen thereof so long as the neutral inmates are not jeopardized. As, however, submarine operations are incompatible with the safety of all persons on board any ship subjected to attack, Germany

is warned that it acts at its peril in destroying by such process an unarmed enemy merchant vessel carrying unoffending American citizens. The right to employ submarines against neutral ships is justly denied. These assertions of the United States are simply declaratory of the application of old and accepted principles of law to the new mode of warfare which the present conflict has developed.

Turning to the British Order in Council, which manifestly failed to conform to international law, the writer says:

Our diplomatic correspondence of the present year has a familiar tone, whether it deals with the treatment of food as contraband, or the validity of a blockade, or the freedom of the seas; for it manifests the recrudescence of old contentions and arguments that Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe combated a century ago. . . .

From this brief review of the past seven months, it is apparent that the United States has seen its rights as a neutral to hold commercial intercourse with one friendly state slowly, yet relentlessly and increasingly, restricted by the conduct of another. This has been brought about, first, by presuming on technical grounds that American cargoes of foodstuffs had a hostile destination; secondly, by practically denying our right to minister to the non-combatant population of its enemy; and lastly, by endeavoring to cut off all commercial intercourse with it.

Now, self-preservation affords a valid excuse for homicide only when it amounts to self-defense. Professor Hyde points out that this principle is as applicable to nations as to individuals, and he quotes the late Professor Westlake, of Cambridge University, as having said in this connection: "The first interest of a society, national or international, is justice; and justice is violated when any state which has not failed in its duty is subjected to aggression intended for the preservation or perfection of another." Mr. Hyde continues:

When a belligerent contends that its respect for established law spells defeat by a relentless foe, and, that retaliation necessary to prevent its own destruction involves incidental lawlessness towards neutral states of vastly less consequence to them than defeat would signify for itself, it takes a plausible yet untenable stand. In the first place, such a state is incapable of measuring the relative degree of harm which it would suffer by obedience to the law, as compared with that which unoffending neutrals would experience through its disobedience. Secondly, it measures the reasonableness of its lawless conduct by the effect thereby produced upon itself, rather than upon the family of nations. The true merit of the excuse, however, depends upon the effect produced upon the latter.

A DENUNCIATION OF NEUTRALITY

WRITING on "Perpetual Peace and the Doctrine of Neutrality," in the *International Journal of Ethics*, Mr. James Creed Meredith, of Dublin, Ireland, places that doctrine in a rather novel light, and then proceeds to denounce it roundly,—and incidentally to pay his compliments to the pacifists as muddle-headed enemies to progress. He attacks with sarcasm the notion that there is something dignified and even meritorious in the position of neutrality; points out that "the law of neutrality, and even a word to express that relation," is of comparatively modern origin; holds it obvious that the immediate interest which provisions in respect of neutrality are intended to serve is the localization of war. Then he says:

If the localization of war is part of the settled policy of diplomacy, then nature, in the sense of the inevitable course of human progress, and diplomacy, are striving in opposite directions. The growing complexity, involution, and ever-increasing ramifications of trade interests, not to mention less potent influences arising out of the general social and political organization of the human race, make the localization of war more and more difficult. . . . Despite all efforts at

localization, the present war has attained the most imposing scale of terrible grandeur yet witnessed in the world's history. Further, this war has brought home to us more than any previous war the extent to which neutrals, however much their neutrality is respected, must become affected by a great war. . . .

Diplomacy, by encouraging neutrality on the part of the nations not primarily interested in a dispute, is in effect simply striving to make all codes of international law so much waste paper, or, at least, to make them so the moment any state chooses to disregard them. International law thus becomes obliged to admit the false and self-destructive doctrine that it is not concerned with the origin of any dispute, even though the origin be a flagrant breach of the most fundamental principles of international law itself. The disputants are relegated to the primitive right of self-redress, and the duty of all other states is simply to keep the ring. Rights are admitted, but the weaker state is left to enforce its right against the stronger.

The writer holds that if all states,—the disinterested as well as those that are primarily interested in a dispute,—could be drawn into every war, if, that is to say, war could in every case be universalized, there would be a reasonable hope of securing a steady preponderance of might in favor of right. In this way the authority of inter-

national law would be restored, and to that extent the tendency of war if once started to become universal operates as a tendency to prevent it altogether, whereas all efforts to localize war are only efforts to perpetuate it.

In the development of his thesis, we get such statements as the following:

Besides attempting to rob international law of its appropriate sanction,—the force of disinterested nations whose sympathies would naturally tend to be enlisted on the side of right,—diplomacy, in seeking to localize war, is in effect attempting to shut out the influence of all states whose primary desire is for peace. . . .

If nature could only defeat the aims of diplomacy, and make neutrality during a long war more onerous than belligerency during a short war, she would have set up the most potent and effective influence in favor of peace. . . .

Here, he contends, pacificism comes forward, a new enemy to progress. He says:

The truly "Great Illusion," which deceives most enthusiasts who devote themselves to the problem of preventing war, is the illusion that if the ultimate solution must be found in an effective international council, the first step to be taken must be to establish the international council, and the next step must be to make it effective. But there would be no difficulty whatever in merely setting up an international council. The problem of making such a council effective is the *whole* problem. The first step should be to produce conditions which will secure active intervention on the part of powers other than those originally interested.

The international council would then grow up from the necessities of the case, for the powers referred to would naturally insist on investigating the cause of the dispute, and would desire to confer together with a view to concerted action,—it being to all their interests to combine on the same side, so as to make their intervention decisive and bring about as speedy a termination of the war as possible. An international council coming into existence under such conditions would begin by being effective, because its primary purpose would be to determine action. But an international council that came into existence without having its effectiveness secured to it would start as a merely academic body, and could never become anything else.

Believing that, in the present state of civilization, varying largely with different races, the notion of attempting a "federation of the world" is simply fantastic, this writer concludes:

In fine, it must be apparent to anyone whose mind has not become unbalanced by the horrors of war, that pressure must be brought to bear on states to intervene individually *on one side or the other* long before any system of international relations can be realized under which it would be practicable for a judicial tribunal or an international council to dictate to them *on which side* they are to intervene, and further, that even before such pressure could be exerted in sufficient strength to coerce every state to intervene in every dispute on one side or the other, conditions should be so molded that the pressure is only of sufficient strength to make the more self-respecting and influential powers intervene in cases of the flagrant violation of the principles of international law.

MAETERLINCK ON HEROISM

ONE of the most painful accompaniments of the European conflict has been the disheartening spectacle of famous men in one and another country belching forth poisonous fumes of hatred and misprision for their opponents, without any sign of the moderation and justice the world ought to be able to expect from its intellectual leaders. It is refreshing, therefore, to find so great a man as Maeterlinck,—a native, too, of the most cruelly wounded country of all,—singing no song of hate, but rapt in wonder and admiration at the marvelous heroism displayed in the field by the soldiers of *all* the warring nations. His very beautiful essay entitled "Heroism" will doubtless eventually appear in full in the American edition of his works. Meanwhile we are glad to give extracts from it as it appeared in the June 6 issue of *Les Annales* (Paris).

What moves the great Belgian most is the

unexpected fact that the modern fighting man is essentially more heroic than the soldier of ruder and more primitive days. He observes:

One of the most consoling surprises of this war is the unexpected and apparently general heroism which it has suddenly revealed among all the peoples taking part therein. One would have believed that courage, moral and physical endurance, abnegation, forgetfulness of self, entire renunciation of comfort, the capacity for self-sacrifice, and the facing of death belonged only to the races which are the most primitive, the least happy, the least intelligent, the least capable of reasoning, of realizing danger, and of representing by the imagination the fearsome abyss which separates this life from the one of which we know naught.

In fact, one was about ready to persuade himself that wars would be extinguished some day for mere lack of soldiers; that is, for lack of men blind enough or unhappy enough to hazard,—for the sake of an idea more or less invisible, as are all ideas, the only incontestable realities which each of us possesses here below,—his

health, his comfort, the integrity of his body, and, above all, of his life.' . . .

It was the more natural to yield to the weight of such reasoning, since in the measure that existence has become pleasanter, and our nerves more sensitive, the means of destruction in war have become more cruel, more implacable, and more irresistible. It seemed more and more probable that no man would be able to support the infernal horrors of a battlefield, and, after the first hecatombs, the hostile armies, officers and soldiers, seized by an incoercible panic, would turn and flee, in a natural and simultaneous weakness, from the superhuman scourges which have surpassed the most monstrous previsions of those who let them loose.

However, it is exactly the contrary which has come to pass, declares M. Maeterlinck, and he proves his point by references to history and olden romance. He bids us take note of the weaknesses of Homer's heroes, the very archetypes of the world's ideal heroes, remarking on their fear of wounds as well as of death, and declaring that their combats were more declamatory than bloody.

Moreover the fighting men were professionals, picked and trained men, there being no question in the middle ages, even, of a conscript nation forced to bear arms. Finally, most of the olden wars were ended by two or three decisive battles, and even in these one might feel reasonably sure of not having more than one chance in twenty or thirty of being killed.

Now all is changed, and death itself is no longer similar to what it used to be. At least, one saw it face to face, one knew whence it came and who sent it. Its form was terrible, but it remained human. . . . In the present day it adds to all its horrors the intolerable fearsomeness of mystery. It no longer has a visage, nor habits, nor hours of slumber and of relaxation. It is always at full tension, everywhere present . . . surging from all points of the horizon, emerging from the earth and falling from the heavens, indefatigable, inevitable, occupying all space, occupying all time, lasting for days, for weeks, for months, without a minute of interruption, without a second of remission.

In other days, our author declares, heroism was a lofty peak where one stood for a sublime but brief moment, to-day it is a limitless plain, as uninhabitable as a peak, but from which there is no possible descent. Then, with unmistakable reference to his unhappy native land, desolated Belgium, he says:

To have saved its life it had but to yield to the enemy; the invader would not have exterminated it. A great nation is never exterminated; it is even impossible seriously to enslave it and to render it long unhappy. It had nothing to fear but shame. . . . It was no question then of the heroism which is only a final stand of despair, the heroism of the animal brought to bay and fighting blindly to delay for a moment the

coming of death. No! It was a heroism freely assumed, willed, acclaimed, unanimous; heroism for an idea and for a sentiment; that is, heroism in its purest, most virgin form, an unmixed sacrifice and without a backward glance to duty,—duty to one's self, to one's own family, to humanity, and to the future.

If life and the absence of danger had been more precious than the idea of honor, of patriotism, of fidelity to traditions and to the race, there were, I repeat, means of making the choice, and never, perhaps, in any war, was choice easier, for never were men freer to choose.

But this choice, which, as I have just said, never dared show its base shadow on the lowest horizons of the least noble consciences, are you sure that in other times which we have believed to be better and more virtuous than ours, it would not have been perceived and considered? Can you find a people, even among the greatest, who, in the course of a war beside which all others seem like child's play, . . . who would not have wavered, who would not, at least for an instant, have abased their eyes to regard a peace without glory?

M. Maeterlinck's conclusion is that the superior heroism, both moral and physical, evinced in this war is due to the fact that civilization, though it may soften the body, increases the intelligence, and that in the last analysis it is intelligence that compels will power. While our predecessors seemed stronger than we, closer to nature, more austere, more inured to physical suffering, fatigue, and death, he believes they could not and would not have endured the strain to which modern soldiers are being subjected.

Have we not the right, then, to conclude that civilization,—contrary to what we had feared,—far from enervating man, from depraving, enfeebling, diminishing, and abasing him, really elevates, purifies, strengthens, and ennoble him, rendering him capable of unknown acts of sacrifice, of generosity, and of courage?

It is because civilization, even when it seems to corrupt, adds to the intelligence; and intelligence, in the day of trial, is potential pride, nobility, and heroism. Here, as I said in the beginning, is the unlooked-for and consoling revelation of this frightful war; we can definitely count upon man, can have full confidence in him, and no longer fear that in leaving primitive brutality behind him he will lose his virile virtues.

The more he advances in the conquest of nature the more he seems to attach himself to material welfare . . . but the more, at bottom, does he become capable of detachment from self, of self-immolation for the good of others, the better he comprehends that there is nothing to be compared to the eternal life of his dead and his children. . . . The future of humanity was in question, and the magnificent response which comes to us from everywhere completely reassures us as to the issue of other more formidable struggles which doubtless await us, when we do not combat our peers, but confront the more cruel and more powerful forces of the great, mysterious enemies which nature holds in reserve against us.

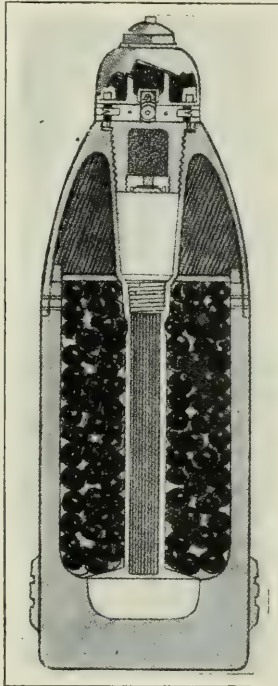
SHRAPNEL



TIME-FUSE SHRAPNEL

(The shell, fired from gun at right against entrenched infantry, bursts about 80 yards in front of them and about 15 feet above the ground. The arrows indicate the zone covered by the bullets)

THE great European conflict has been called an artillery war, a war of siege guns, machine guns and the gun that hurls shrapnel shell. This last-mentioned weapon is, perhaps, the most deadly of the light artillery, and one which the reader of the war news day by day sees constantly mentioned in accounts of the fighting. Shrapnel, says *Navy and Army Illustrated* (London), to which we are indebted for the diagrams on this page, gets its name from its inventor, General Shrapnell, who, during the Peninsular War conceived the idea of filling a hollow shell with metallic odds and ends, combined with an explosive charge. With the bursting of this contrivance, the contents were naturally scattered in all directions. Since the time of its invention, this projectile has been considerably improved, however, and its deadliness and destructiveness greatly increased. The designs also are varied to meet feet and their riders' heads. The jagged special needs. The modern shrapnel shell is fragments of the steel case tear gaping a steel cylinder packed with bullets, carries an wounds, increasing the deadly effect.



CROSS-SECTION VIEW OF SHRAPNEL SHELL, WITH TIME FUSE, SHOWING DISPOSITION OF BULLETS

explosive charge, and is capped with either percussion or a time fuse. The percussion fuse, which explodes only on coming into contact with a solid object such as the ground, is used extensively against approaching infantry. The time-fuse shrapnel can be made to burst practically at any range, and is very effective against entrenched infantry. Exploding almost immediately above the heads of the soldiers, the maximum force of the charge is directed downward over a wide area, and is particularly destructive. The experience of the present war seems to show that a well-timed shrapnel shot is capable of inflicting greater injuries upon entrenched troops than any other missile, beside being most unnerving. For use against approaching cavalry, the fuse is so timed that the detonation occurs a few feet from the muzzle of the gun, the missiles bursting forwards over a wide angle that takes in the horses' heads. The jagged special needs. The modern shrapnel shell is fragments of the steel case tear gaping a steel cylinder packed with bullets, carries an wounds, increasing the deadly effect.



PERCUSSION SHRAPNEL

(Fired from gun at right against advancing infantry, the shell bursts upon hitting the ground, throwing a shower of bullets at the approaching troops. It is also used against buildings, but is ineffective on soft ground)



CASE (SHRAPNEL) SHOT

(Used at short range against cavalry. The shell bursts immediately after leaving the gun. At 200 yards' range the lateral spread is 25 yards)

THE "WAR ORDERS" AND AMERICAN INDUSTRY

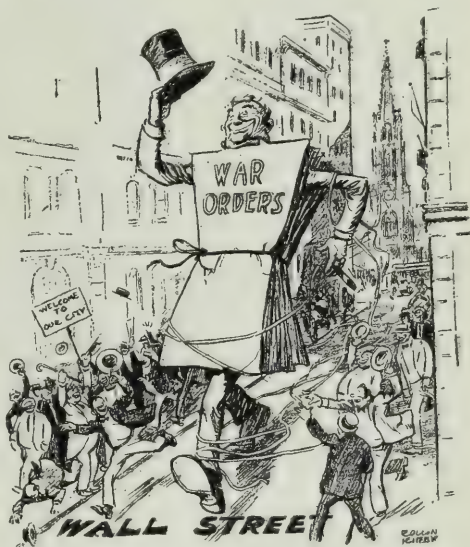
UNDER the title "The War Orders and American Industry," the *Engineering Magazine* for July prints a symposium of opinions from a group of six eminent American manufacturers as to the effect upon American industry of the unprecedented buying by the European Allies of certain lines of goods in the United States. A flood of orders from European nations for supplies and materials consumed in warfare, says the editor of the magazine, has taxed the resources of some lines of manufacturing, forced others to change their plants over to make new products, stimulated prices and increased production. "Our industries are experiencing one of the most surprising readjustments in their history."

"What has been the exact influence of these 'war orders'?" and "What will be their ultimate effect?" are the questions which were asked of several men qualified to know.

The consensus of the views quoted is that the bulk of "war orders" placed here constitutes unqualifiedly an industrial benefit, and that the ultimate effect also cannot fail to be beneficial. The most cautious observers merely suggest that "we may expect a return to a normal level after the orders are all filled." No serious reaction seems to be ex-

pected in any quarter and no painful readjustment. In its editorial summary, the *Engineering Magazine* says:

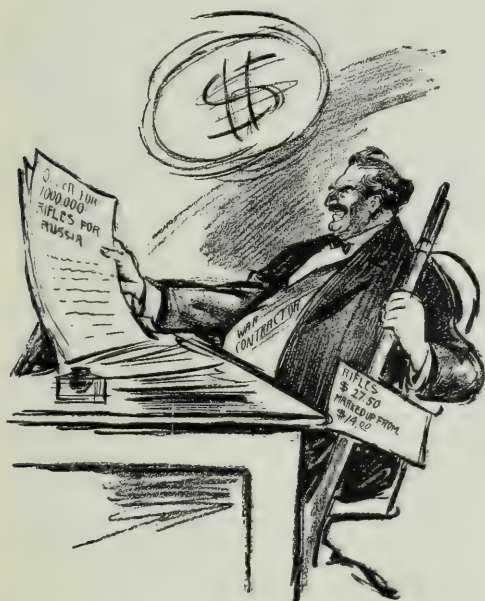
The testimony is almost universal that from the industrial viewpoint the war orders came as a great relief as well as a revelation of our latent powers. Their immediate effect has been tremendous. The argument is made that they have developed a poorly balanced and somewhat unhealthy state of business, stimulating only certain lines of industry and leaving other lines untouched and in very poor shape because of the war. The unbalanced condition does not exist to such an extent as supposed. It is hardly realized how far-reaching has been the stimulus of the heavy purchases, how many varied lines of production have been affected favorably, and



A TRIUMPHANT ENTRY
From the *World* (New York)

these the most fundamental in our industrial life. A heavy order for shrapnel quickens production in the mines of Missouri, Michigan, and the Rocky Mountains; into a million pairs of shoes goes a series of animal, vegetable, and mineral raw products, drawn from all the accessible corners of the earth; for motor-trucks and shrapnel cases and rifles and numberless other products, the steel manufacturers have to furnish a variety of material that has required continual increases in the percentage of their capacity operated.

The influence of all these demands has to a large extent converged on the machine-tool builders who have had to supply the equipment for extensions and alterations and new undertakings. Since the war began the farmer has been selling wheat, horses, and mules at prices and in quantity he did not dream of a year ago. And it must



THE WAR CONTRACTOR, AND WHY HE IS HAPPY
From the *Central Press* (Cleveland)

be remembered that not only have the gross receipts been huge, but the proportion of profits has been far beyond the normal. Great new supplies of capital are thus becoming available day by day, and the influence of these accumulations is felt even in quarters not directly affected by war purchases. Of the great industries concerned directly with the products of the earth, only coal and iron mining, lumber and cotton, lag noticeably behind the procession.

As representative of the general manufacturer, Mr. W. L. Saunders, chairman of the board of the Ingersoll-Rand Company, is quoted as saying that the immediate effect of the war orders has been excellent in every way and they came at a time when they were badly needed. Mr. Saunders does not look for any increased volume of sales to Europe after the war is over, but he adds:

We shall enjoy one great advantage after peace is declared, however; that is an increased opportunity to trade in the countries either neutral or not close to the areas of fighting, such as South America, Africa, and Australia. Our goods will have gained a foothold in these markets and this should not be hard to maintain.

One of the military sensations of the war has been the work of the motor-truck. American motor-trucks have stood the test of most arduous service, and truck manufacturers have profited greatly. Mr. Vernon Munroe, president of the International Motor Company, is quoted as follows:

The present sees the motor-truck industry making heavy profits; the future is uncertain to a high degree. Expanded plants and more highly speeded methods will see us all with much greater capacity than before the war. . . . A strong business revival would absorb a largely increased production and such a revival seems to me not at all unlikely.

The war is demonstrating the capabilities of the truck in a wonderful way. This will, of course, help to introduce it into new fields when peace comes. At the same time American trucks are receiving some excellent advertising and getting a foothold in foreign markets.

Speaking for the machine-tool industry, Mr. James K. Cullen, president of the Niles-Bement-Pond Company, says that that trade has been stimulated opportunely, and that good demand may reasonably be expected for some time to come, but he makes no predictions for the future.

Mr. John A. Topping, chairman of the Republic Iron and Steel Company, says that the stimulating feature of war demand on the steel trade is that a substantial tonnage has been obtained for direct export, and in addition there has been a large increase in demand from the consumers of fabricated

steel products used directly or indirectly for war purposes, so that a better tone has been established in the market generally for iron and steel products. He sees still further benefits, such as earnest efforts to reduce costs of manufacturing and improve the quality of products, and

As a secondary effect of the war, I believe that at the establishment of peace, this country will be found to be in a more nearly self-contained position than ever before from every viewpoint. It goes without saying that the present demand has stimulated the introduction of a great deal of machinery for the equipment and maintenance of the army and navy, but aside from this, I believe that we will be in a far stronger position than we ever have been with respect to our ability to supply the materials heretofore imported, as curtailed importations affected by the present war have stimulated research and the adoption of substitutes for many products as well as the production of many items not heretofore manufactured.

As representative of the engineering and contracting business, taking a broad view and summing up the general situation, Mr. John F. Wallace, formerly chief engineer of the Panama Canal and now chairman and president of Westinghouse, Church, Kerr & Co., says:

There are three ways in which these orders have benefited the United States. In the first place they came at a critical time and affected the very industries which the war itself had already injured; they may thus be regarded as a compensation. The electrical and mechanical equipment business and other industries which have been particularly concerned in filling the orders were somewhat slack when the war began, but the first effect of the hostilities was to intensify the previous depression. To these industries the war orders were veritable godsend. . . .

The second way in which the orders have affected the country favorably is by the balance of trade in our favor which they have created. . . .

The third benefit, as I take it, is a matter of the future. When the war is over, or before it ends for that matter, the United States will have, so far as equipment is concerned, a means of providing for national defense, which should prove adequate to every emergency; the plants that are now engaged in turning out arms, ammunition, and supplies for the European governments could be used to equip our own armies in remarkably short time. . . .

After peace is declared, we shall be in a strong position. . . . The effect of the heavy production now going on and of the great profits being made will be to stimulate our industries, furnish ready capital, and supply national confidence. An additional cause for expecting prosperity after peace returns is the commanding position the United States is coming to have in international finance.

The final outcome will be the resultant of a great number of forces, and its exact direction and intensity cannot be foretold, but I for one am confident that it will be in general good.

THE BELGIAN QUEEN

MARY ROBERTS RINEHART gives, in the *Saturday Evening Post* of July 3, a vivid pen-picture of her visit to the Queen of the Belgians. Last autumn, when the whirlwind of war swept over Belgium, the Belgian Queen lived in a modest villa at La Panne in order to be near to her beloved soldiers. Here Mrs. Rinehart visited her and set down her message to the world.

The Queen is living at La Panne, a tiny fishing village and resort on the coast,—an ugly village, robbed of quaintness by its rows of villas owned by summer visitors. The villas are red and yellow brick, built château fashion and set at random on the sand. Efforts at lawns have proved abortive. The encroaching dunes gradually cover the grass. Here and there are streets; and there is one main thoroughfare, along which is a tramway that formerly connected the town with other villages.

On one side the sea; on the other the dunes, with little shade and no beauty,—such is the location of the new capital of Belgium. And here, in one of the six small villas that house the court, the King and Queen of Belgium, with the Crown Prince, are living. They live very quietly, walking together along the sands at those times when King Albert is not with his troops, fairing simply, waiting always,—as all Belgium is waiting to-day. Waiting for the end of this dreadful period.

The royal villa at La Panne faces the sea. It is at the end of the village, and the encroaching dunes have ruined what was meant to be a small lawn. The long grass that grows out of the sand is the only vegetation about it; and outside, half buried in the dune, is a marble seat. A sentry box or two and sentries with carbines pacing along the sand; the constant swish of the sea wind through the dead winter grass; the half-buried garden seat,—that is what the Queen of the Belgians sees as she looks from the windows of her villa. The villa itself is small and ugly. The furnishing is the furnishing of a summer seaside cottage. The windows fit badly and rattle in the gale. In the long drawing-

room,—really a living-room,—in which I waited for the Queen, a heavy red curtain had been hung across the lower part of the long French windows that face the sea, to keep out the draft. With that and a coal fire the room was fairly comfortable.

Into this simple living-room, the scene of so many poignant discussions of tragedy and woe, there came presently the Belgian Queen, a lovely, girlish figure, clad in a simple plain blue dress with white lawn collar and cuffs. It is agreed by all who have seen her that

"like Queen Mary of England she has suffered from the camera." She is a beautiful woman of small, slender figure, a soft, well-modulated voice, and great simplicity of manner. By birth she is a Bavarian, and, naturally, previous to the war had felt great friendliness for Germany.

"I have always, from my childhood, heard this talk that Germany must grow, must get to the sea. I thought it was just talk,—a pleasantry."

She had seen many diaries of the German soldiers; and had heard their own accounts of the pillage of Belgium:

"She went white over the recollection and closed her eyes.

"It is the women and children," she said. "It is terrible. There must be killing. That is war. But not this other thing."

And later she said: "The Belgian army would never have behaved so in a prostrate and conquered land. Nor

the English; nor the French. Never."

The Queen sold her jewels long ago to buy supplies for the wounded soldiers. She is devoted to the welfare of the troops and goes personally to the front to inspect the trenches and do all within her power to give comfort and solace to her troops. The Ocean Ambulance, the Belgian base hospital, is under her direct supervision and she visits it daily. In her interview with Mrs. Rinehart, the Queen expressed gratitude to



QUEEN ELIZABETH OF BELGIUM

("She is indeed strikingly beautiful, with lovely coloring and hair, and with direct wide eyes set far apart. Like Queen Mary, she has suffered from the camera.")

America for its relief work; she spoke of Brand Whitlock and his activities in Brussels and of the helpfulness of the generous American women. In reference to a German criticism of King Albert's conduct of the war, she said, "Anyone who knows the King knows that he cannot do a wrong thing. It is impossible for him. He cannot go any way but straight."

This is Mrs. Rinehart's conclusion:

What King Albert sees may not all be written; but this is certain: Both these royal exiles,—this Soldier-King who has won and deserved the admiration of the world; this Queen who refuses to leave her husband and her wounded, though day after day hostile aeroplanes are overhead and the roar of German guns is in her ears,—these royal exiles live in hope and in deep conviction. They will return to Belgium. Their country will be theirs again. Their houses will be restored; their fields will be sown and yield harvest,—not for Germany, but for Belgium. Belgium, as Belgium, will live again!

ITALY'S PART IN NAVAL WARFARE

IS the Italian navy ready for war? What part can it play in the present conflict?

These and other pertinent questions that suggest themselves in connection with Italy's entrance into the war, are discussed at length in a late issue of *Le Correspondant* (Paris).

The importance of naval operations, says the writer, in a conflict between Austria and Italy strikes a person at once in unfolding a map of the Adriatic. We see that they face each other with an extensive front—700 kilometers on one side, 1100 on the other—in a narrow sea whose outlet, the Strait of Otranto, is still narrower, and at whose northern extremity the two countries are contiguous.

It may be stated at the outset that the war did not take the Italian navy unawares. Its strength is very appreciably superior to that of the Austrian navy; it has more warships, and among these more dreadnoughts, as many light cruisers, and a far greater number of submarines.

But the equipment is of no consequence unless the personnel is energetic, trained, and ably officered. In order to estimate a navy as a whole, it is requisite to know something of its history. Founded, like the Kingdom, in 1860, the Italian navy could, until four years ago, point to little more than a single battle, Lissa,—and that a blot—on its records. Lissa was undoubtedly a defeat, but it is extravagant to term it, as has often been done, a disaster, to couple it with Sadowa.

It would be as erroneous, as unjust, to judge the Italian navy of to-day by that of 1866 as to apply the estimate of the French army of 1870 to the French army of to-day.

In 1872 Admiral Pacoret de Saint Bon, aided by the famous naval constructor, Benedetto Brin, disposed of the fleet of Persano, commander at Lissa—a deplorable financial transaction—and undertook to construct a wholly new squadron composed of powerful

units. This was the period of the family quarrel. Mentana and the Roman question obliterated the brotherhood in arms of Magenta and Solferino; the French occupation of Tunis put the finishing touch upon the growing antipathy.

Italy joins the Triple Alliance, and the reconstruction of its navy becomes a "work of hate." The naval budget reaches 155 millions in 1889,—the zenith of the policy of Crispi and the *Dreibund*. Three or four years later Italy realizes that she is steering towards bankruptcy; a policy of retrenchment, entailing the sale of her best ships, the meager payment of the men, causing much discontent, followed. This policy, the writer comments, was the worst of all.

Italy perceived that the Triple Alliance did not satisfy her desires. Back in 1899 Delcassé's conciliatory spirit, as well as that of Barrère, French Ambassador to Rome, begin to be justly appreciated, Italy's eyes to be opened to the truth. The people slowly turn towards friendship with France. Italian policy is gradually outlined; irredentism increases in the peninsula and vis-à-vis, Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, cherishes the dream of a national war against Italy, which would establish the unity of the Hapsburg Empire as the war against France established German unity.

Political events accentuate the divergent views. Italy takes the side of France at Algeciras in 1906; she does not hail the annexation of Herzegovina with enthusiasm; she is repeatedly checked, sometimes even indirectly threatened, in her campaign against Tripoli and Turkey; finally, the Albanian issue and that of the islands came near causing an explosion in 1912. The first military precautions against Austria date from 1903. Austria launched her first dreadnought in 1907.

After detailing the excellent condition of the Italian naval equipment as well as the abundant means at the Government's command of maintaining it in good shape, the writer lauds the spirit of the personnel, which alone gives value to material equip-



ONE OF ITALY'S SUPERDREADNOUGHTS, THE "CONTE DI CAVOUR"

(There are two other superdreadnoughts of the *Conte di Cavour* type in the Italian navy,—the *Leonardo da Vinci* and the *Giulio Cesare*. Each of these was completed in 1914, has a displacement of 22,340 tons, a speed of 23 knots and a complement of 1000 men. The three ships of this type each carry thirteen 12-inch, eighteen 4.7-inch, and twenty smaller and light machine-guns, with three submerged torpedo-tubes. Two dreadnoughts of the *Andrea Doria* type, completed this present year, have a displacement of 23,025 tons each)

ment. The men are all Italians and imbued with patriotism. Montecuccoli, Austria's admiral-in-chief from 1905 to 1913, never missed an occasion to celebrate the victory of Lissa. "Our new ally did not reply . . . But few people are as dangerous as an Italian who remains silent under an outrage. He will bide his time, twenty years if need be."

For some years, thanks to useful reforms, the Italian navy has been very progressive. The officers are better treated, the crews, too, partaking in the improved conditions. The general morale is excellent, particularly since the Turkish campaign of 1911-12. The mobilization of the Italian fleet,—one may say this, as it has just been accomplished,—is extremely easy.

WHAT CAN THE ITALIAN NAVY DO?

The writer explains why Taranto, Ancona, Venice are, owing to the conformation of the coast, not favorable objects for an Austrian naval attack. Furthermore, what, he asks, could dreadnoughts accomplish in the Adriatic, in view of the fact that both antagonists have submarines at their disposal? And we must remember that not all the eastern shore belongs to Austria. Italy did not hesitate to occupy, several months ago, the excellent port, Avlona, in Albania,

—the only good one in that country,—very probably with the consent of France, England, and Russia. The writer cites an observation which he made in a former article, —May 25th,—“that a blockade of the Adriatic would be a visionary scheme until Italy should join the Allies, *because a close blockade of a port supplied with submarines cannot be maintained with large ships.*”

The Austrians, like the French, hypnotized by the idea of dreadnoughts, have spent prodigious sums upon them; beginning the war with seven medium submarines, they have scarcely four or five left.

The six Italian dreadnoughts will have a good moral effect upon people who still believe in them. The pre-dreadnoughts, with their abundant armament, can be utilized to bombard the nest of German submarines recently arrived in the Mediterranean, where they sank three English warships within a few days.

The fifty-seven Austro-German steamers, seized upon the declaration of war in the Italian ports, serve to reinforce the transportation facilities of the Allies, so heavily burdened by the conflict in the Dardanelles.

“But what we [*i. e.*, the French] appreciate above all,” the writer continues, “because we lack them almost entirely, are the great torpedo-boat destroyers and the light Italian cruisers, so swift, with their 28 and 32 knots, and so well armed, with their 12-centimeter guns; likewise, their fine submarines. . . .”

The writer details a number of victories already achieved by the Italian fleet, the crowning one accomplished by the old destroyer, *Zaffiro*, in an attack on the Austrian port, Porto Buso. Mere *coups-de-main*, one might say, but what fine ones, and what a moral effect they will exert upon an enemy already discouraged.

Should the German submarines appear in the Adriatic, to put in supplies at Pola, they will find rough adversaries in the scouts, with 28 knots, the great torpedo-boats, with 32 and more knots, and their 12-centimeter guns.

But will our new ally have enough of these excellent little fleets to keep guard over the armored cruisers operating in the Dardanelles, without leaving the Adriatic denuded?

Ah! what an error we have committed in neglecting for ten years the building of flotilla ships!

AN AUSTRIAN ATTACK ON ITALY

BARON CHLUMECKY, political editor of the *Österreichische Rundschau* (Vienna), contributes the leading article to a recent issue of that magazine, in which he denounces with a burning indignation Italy's action in abandoning her allies. Her course in joining the war could, he observes, have been foretold by her malicious, underhand scheming while ostensibly neutral. He says in substance:

If war be indeed only a continuation of political policy with different means, then Italy can point to the fact that, free from all scruples of political faith and morality, she has consistently pursued a course in the world war which she followed in peace for many years. To be at once Austria's ally and her most malignant foe, to form one of the *Dreibund* and promote the interests of the *Entente*,—that has for decades been Italy's policy. The official ally of Germany and Austria, she was the secret confederate of the Western powers, and made bold to give practical evidence of it, too, on every occasion. As far back as 1897, when the Cretan issue became acute, she made the cause of England her own. Her attitude was still more pronounced in the Algeiras affair, clearly indicating that neither Austria-Hungary nor Germany could count upon her assistance in case of any great clash of European interests.

It has for decades been an axiom in Italian policy to further everything conducive to a weakening of Austria: hence her displeasure with Russia due to the more friendly attitude of that country to Austria in 1903 and her subsequent rather undignified courting of her favor when opposition between the two Empires was resumed. She furthered the ambitious schemes of the Serbians; the official and unofficial relations between Belgrade and Rome grew closer and closer. Wherever in the Balkans there arose an opponent of Austria, he could rely on the support of Italy,—Count Berchtold and Count Aehrenthal had truly a hard road to travel in defending Austria's most vital interests on the southeast, for to Russia's open opposition there was added Italy's insidious enmity.

It has been generally held in Italy that her rise to a world power could be attained only through Austria's downfall. Not even in France and Russia were the publications advocating a disruption of that Empire hailed with as great

an acclaim. Influential papers made it their prime object to foment hatred of Austria, steadily circulated the myth of the oppression of the Italians in that country. The stage, too, served the same tendencies. Rovetta and D'Annunzio, by their dramas, *Romanticismo* and *Nave*, inculcated in hundreds of thousands a hatred of the Empire and preached a war of annihilation against her. Even the schools became nurseries of Irredentism, and official text-books speak of South Tyrol and Trieste as the beautiful, "still" unredeemed lands. The government openly tolerated Irredentist activities and supported the *mare-nostro* policy, which aimed at Italy's exclusive control of the Adriatic.

Austria met all these evidences of enmity with a steady forbearance, bore patiently Italy's unlawful interference in her domestic concerns,—nay, more, she sedulously avoided the commemoration of many a glorious tradition and feat of arms in deference to the excessive sensitiveness of the Italians. In Italy there is scarcely a town which has not immortalized the memory of Solferino,—in Austria even the panorama of the engagement at Lissa had to appear under the anonymous title: "A Naval Battle," because the Duke of Avara considered it an insult to remind Italy of Austria's victory.

All this indulgence, however, this renunciation of Austria's interests, did not succeed in changing Italy's attitude. *Morte all' Austria* continued to be the almost universal watchword, and for years there has scarcely been a single Italian who deemed it possible that his country would, when it came to the point, fight on the side of her allies. Had the King commanded them to do so, the reply would have been barricades in Milan, Bologna, and Rome. It was not, however, anxiety to save his throne which kept him from conjuring up that danger; the King himself was a decided enemy of Austria; he, too, in his heart sided with her foes; he, too, feigned a loyalty only as long as he feared Germany's and Austria's strength.

All who know Italy have for years been aware that her alliance with Austria was a hollow pact. The latter had a choice of two things: to anticipate Italy's increasingly evident aims and render her harmless, or to wait until she should deem it a fitting moment to strike Austria in the back,—this was the bone of contention between the militarists and Count Aehrenthal, who favored continuing the policy of loyalty to the uttermost.

The reward of Austria is Italy's heinous crime,

which, after ten months of war, compels the former to fight her ally of yesterday. Immediately after the outbreak of the world conflict, hatred of Austria burst forth in Italy with a fiery violence. The abuse of the Empire, derision of its army, enmity to its ruler, and denunciation of German "Huns" and "barbarians," in which the press indulged, exceeded at times the outpourings of the French papers. Then, gradually, a calm set in: it was found that Italy was not in fighting trim; that it was wiser to utilize the first months for equipment and *leave the brunt of the work to the warring powers!* It has never been Italy's way to gain coveted territory by her own unaided exertions: she has always let others bleed and then gathered the desired booty, at times despite her own reverses. Ten months she armed, ten months she allowed her ally to fight the strongest military forces in the world, and then only had she the courage to throw her the gantlet.

Even in these ten months of "neutrality" Italy rendered the greatest services to Austria's enemies. Her troops were concentrated upon the frontiers of Austria alone, thus preventing the latter from using its full strength against Serbia and Russia, while enabling France to leave its southeastern border almost completely unguarded. The "neutralists" of Italy, though opposed to Austria, thought she was inflicting sufficient injury upon her ally without proceeding to war; they claimed that her attitude had prevented the victory of the central powers, thus entitling her to their gratitude.

This, however, did not suffice for the "interventionists." Not satisfied with only promoting the interests of the *Entente*, they wanted to see the Dual Monarchy crushed. Hence they demanded, after ten months, the active intervention of the army, which had meanwhile been carefully equipped.

The people, however, would not have been so ready or so enthusiastic to join the cause had not the press, subsidized by France and England, suppressed the latest great Teuton successes in Galicia, even going the length of representing them in part as Russian victories. The great body of Italians thought that Austria's powers of resistance were well nigh spent, they saw her lying prostrate,—then only did they summon courage to stab her in the back, supposing it would be her death blow. The multitude, misled by the press, sees before it a military promenade,—is fired with martial enthusiasm only because it does not expect an earnest resistance on the part of Austria.

As to the responsible parties: a bad conscience, a realization of their treachery and its possible consequences, finally their inextinguishable hatred of Austria,—these are the mainsprings that impelled King and government to a war against the Dual Monarchy. The same King, who has for six years condoned unparalleled manifestations against its ruler, his ally; who, like his predecessors, reared to a hatred of Austria and dislike of its sovereign, was a pleased onlooker

when Oberdank was hailed as a national hero solely in virtue of his attempt on the life of Francis Joseph.

It was not with a "heavy heart" that the King decided to declare war against Austria. He was long since ready for that, primarily from fear of a Nemesis, and, furthermore, knowing no better means of securing Italy's future than by annihilating Austria,—which he presumes will come to pass. Only thus can Rome's refusal to accept concessions, whose compass could not have been essentially increased even as the result of a victorious campaign, be explained. Italy dares the war not so much for territorial aggrandizement as for the realization of the aim she *pursued in peace as well with all the means at her command*,—to hurl Austria from her position of a great power. In this sense Italy is consistent: she continues on the path she has followed for decades.

This attitude of Italy, it is asserted, is responsible for the world war. Never would France, England, and even Russia, have brought it on so lightheartedly had they not felt perfectly certain that Italy would under no circumstances be found on the Teuton side. Diplomats of the Entente powers likewise knew that there was a fair chance that the army of Italy would march against its old allies. This apprehension and the loyal desire to maintain the alliance with Italy,—if she showed even the slightest favorable disposition,—is what actuated the Foreign Minister, Baron Burian, to offer her a compensation for her neutrality,—the maximum of what Austria could give without absolutely abandoning its position in the South and on the Adriatic.

Baron Burian did well,—evidencing that the Emperor desired to avoid a conflict at any price, and forcing Italy to lay aside her mask: the nations of Austria know now that their sovereign was ready to make the greatest sacrifices and that Italy went to war with the object of annihilating her former ally.

Against this design, however, [the writer concludes] the whole Empire will rise to defend itself as one man. Austrian blood is not easily stirred, but now when we are threatened by cowardly brigands with a dagger-thrust in the back, now will our wrath rise to a mighty flame, and all Austria echo with the cry: "Down with the traitors!" Now we know where to find our most malignant foe, who wore the mask of friendship, and when she had grown great by our favor and that of Germany, turned out to be an accomplice of our enemies.

No Austrian will ever forgive this, no Hungarian ever forget it. Revenge for a breach of faith unexampled in history,—that will continue to be the watchword; and we shall not rest, nor our children, or children's children, if that be necessary, until a people, devoid of all political and moral loyalty, shall have paid a heavy penalty for the crime committed against our sovereign and our country!

IS JAPAN AGGRESSOR OR PROTECTOR IN CHINA?

IT is interesting to scan the periodical press of the Far East, with its conflicting points of view regarding Japan's purpose in forcing China to accept a series of proposals or demands which strengthen Japan's influence and restrict China in its future relations with other nations.

It will be remembered that on January 19 the Japanese Minister at Peking handed to President Yuan Shih-kai a note embodying twenty-one demands, in five groups. As a result of numerous conferences most of the demands were agreed to, some of them being modified; and final consideration of the group to which China most strenuously objected was postponed. China accepted the remainder on May 8, being hastened by an ultimatum from Japan presented the day before. The agreements were immediately put into treaty form.

To state the matter briefly, the demands related to railway, mining, territorial, and financial arrangements or concessions in Shantung, Southern Manchuria, Eastern Mongolia, and along the coast. The general tone was that Japan and Japanese subjects should be free to engage in such enterprises, but "the Japanese Government's consent shall be first obtained" whenever such permission is granted to the subject of a third power.

CHINESE OPINION

The press of China is unanimous in condemning Japan, and its tone is exceedingly bitter.

The editor of the *Far Eastern Review* (Shanghai), Mr. George Bronson Rea, believes that to understand Japan's object it is desirable to glance back at the relations of the two countries in the past few decades.

He begins with the war of 1894, which resulted so disastrously to China. Not only did she have to settle with Japan, but other powers realized her weakness, and difficulties began. The cession of Formosa to Japan led to dominance in the province of Fukien. The war with Russia followed, as a result of which Russian "rights" in the Liaotung Peninsula and Manchuria were transferred to Japan. Other incidents, disputes, and discussions are enumerated to show that Japan has never been "backward in signaling her accession to a position of special importance",—in each of which Japan "adopted an atti-

tude of cynical brutality," and in none of which did she show "disinterested friendliness for her neighbor."

Finally, Mr. Rea details Japan's "high-handed" methods last fall in the war zone around Kiau-chau, which grew even more intolerable after the operations against that German stronghold had been concluded. He quotes Premier Okuma's statement that "Japan has no ulterior motive, no desire to secure more territory, no thought of depriving China or other peoples of anything which they now possess"; and then, under a heading entitled "Japan Shows Her Hand," Mr. Rea says:

China and the other nations were somewhat astonished at the divergence between Japan's promise and the performance. On January 18, 1915, Japan set up a new and far from attractive diplomatic precedent and showed China plainly that she was going to . . . take full advantage of the opportunity afforded by the war in Europe. . . . She is now engaged in endeavoring to bully China into giving her "spheres of influence," where the Open Door is not to obtain, in Southern Manchuria, in Eastern Mongolia, in Shantung and in Fukien. Her pledges, her promises, are by her own showing worthless "scraps of paper" to be torn to shreds and scattered to the wind.

The editor of the *China Press* (Shanghai), Mr. Thomas F. Millard, believes that:

China is now facing the most serious peril to her existence as a nation that ever has threatened. The demands of Japan strike directly at China's heart. If they are conceded, or if they are established by force, China will hereafter take the position among states of a vassal of Japan.

The most bitter denunciation of Japan comes from the editor of the *National Review* (Shanghai):

Few people have ever believed that Japan desired or had the slightest intention to uphold either the independence or the integrity of China. The annexation of Chosen [Korea], the absorption of the best parts of Manchuria, the assistance lent to those plotting and conspiring against the peace of this land, all proclaim aloud that Japan cares . . . little for her promises. . . .

Japan has revealed her true character in this business as she never revealed it before. She has come out openly as the defier of all the fundamental principles of international ethics, as the cynical scoffer at all promises and the callous violator of all pledges. Her statesmen have set truth and common decency at defiance in a way unparalleled in the most tortuous diplomacy of

the worst courts of the vilest periods of history; and have throughout maintained an air of injured innocence that has surely only deceived those who wished to be deceived. . . .

China, of course, could not help herself. She had to give way. But to say that her giving way and Japan's paltry modifications of her demands have brought about a peaceful solution is to talk the sheerest drivel.

THE JAPANESE VIEWPOINT

The official attitude of the Japanese Government is set forth in the ultimatum presented to China on May 7, a portion of which we quote:

The reason why the Imperial Government opened the present negotiations with the Chinese Government is first to endeavor to dispose of the complications arising out of the war between Japan and Germany, and secondly to attempt to solve those various questions which are detrimental to the intimate relations of China and Japan with a view to solidifying the foundation of cordial friendship subsisting between the two countries to the end that the peace of the Far East may be effectually and permanently preserved. . . .

The attitude of the Japanese press is so well expressed by the editor of the *Japan Magazine* (Tokio), Dr. J. Ingram Bryan, that we quote his remarks at length:

For some time the people of Japan appear to have been convinced that the safety of the empire depends on the policy pursued by China. If China should recklessly permit western interference, as Korea did, Japan's position would be greatly prejudiced. To safeguard her position in the Far East, Japan has had to fight two expensive wars, both of which would have been unnecessary had China been able to protect herself from western aggression. Japan now sees no way out of perpetual war preparation and intermittent conflict unless she insists on China pursuing a certain policy toward western nations, which Japan herself is prepared to support and defend. Japan feels that she and China must stand or fall together. Give one or more western powers supremacy in China and Japan's doom would be sealed. It is the same conviction that Britain entertains with regard to Belgium and Holland. Should Germany obtain control of Belgium, Great Britain's position would be at once menaced and rendered most insecure. So would it also be with Japan were any alien power to obtain the ascendancy in China. That China is so exposed Japan has not the least doubt. She has already driven out Russia and Germany, and she does not cherish the duty of having to drive out a third party or a combination of powers. To preclude so undesirable an eventuality Japan would enter into an understanding with China and come to terms, so that the world might know what to expect and abide by it. But China, urged by outside influence, is in no mood to trust Japan. Yet Japan is determined to come to the desired understanding. The whole Japanese nation demands it.

A NEUTRAL HAWAIIAN OPINION

Dr. Doremus Scudder, editor of the *Friend* (a religious publication of Honolulu), is removed from the scene of heated discussion and yet close enough to have had unusual opportunities for studying the situation impartially. Earlier in his career he was a missionary in Japan. He is able to see both sides of the question. We quote him first in criticism of Japan:

Whatever be Japan's real motive in bringing pressure to bear upon China to accede to these demands, it is perfectly clear from a perusal of them that they are not friendly in tone. They bear no resemblance to bona-fide negotiations between two powers striving to enter into a mutually helpful agreement. . . . They propose for example that the sovereign power of China to lease or cede a part of her territory be surrendered, and that the power to employ foreign advisers in certain parts of the country, to engage whatever advisers she pleases for her central government, to administer her police without foreign interference, to purchase all of her war munitions where she desires, and to borrow foreign capital entirely at her own motion be curtailed. . . . All these demands propose a distinct and very humiliating infringement upon the sovereignty of the Chinese Government.

So much for one side.

There is, however, another view of Japan's course which merits careful consideration before fair-minded men can reach a conclusion. For many years far-sighted leaders in that Empire have recognized the truth that the only possible safety for both Japan and China in developing their civilization free from the dominance of the aggressive white man lies in their standing together. . . .

The brunt of stemming the tide of European aggression fell upon Japan and she did the work in her war with Russia. That war should have opened China's eyes to her danger. But again she temporized. The European war finally gave Japan another great opportunity to dislodge Europe from Eastern Asia, and she grasped it. Even yet, however, China does not realize that the only safety for herself and China from European aggression lies in making common cause with her valiant little neighbor.

Japan having exhausted every other resource in trying to convince China is now compelled to resort to harsher means to bind the two peoples together. Hence these demands which have but one object,—to unite these nations in opposing all further aggression by the white man.

The reader will have noticed that our quotations of Chinese and Japanese opinion are from journals printed in English and edited by Westerners. In every case the writer upholds the Government of his adopted country, and gives expression to the views of the native population.

KOREA—A TRIBUTE TO JAPANESE ADMINISTRATION

EVEN the most outspoken of the critics of Japan in its relations with China,—who frequently point to the political fate of Korea as indicating what will happen to the Chinese Empire,—are prone to admit that the people of the one-time Hermit Kingdom have profited materially in the five years since its annexation by Japan.

As an instance of this feeling we quote the editor of the *Far Eastern Review* (Shanghai), who pauses in the midst of a scathing denunciation of Japanese diplomacy to pay the following tribute to Japanese administration:

Japan fought two wars ostensibly to secure Korea's independence, which Japan solemnly guaranteed, only to annex the country when she felt assured that there would be no interference by any other nation. This must not be taken as advancing the view that the loss of independence has involved any material loss to the Korean people. Rather has there been a gain. The currency of the country, which was in a deplorable condition, has been placed on a sound basis; the legal administration, which was a scoff and a by-word, has been reformed and, if not perfect, is distinctly better than it used to be; while necessary public works have been initiated and in many instances completed.

Korea was formally annexed by Japan in August, 1910, after being governed for some years under a protectorate. It resembles Florida in shape (although somewhat larger), and juts out from the Asiatic mainland toward the southern tip of the islands of Japan. Prior to the advent of Japanese direction, the native population of approximately 15,000,000 existed in apparent contentment under almost primitive conditions. Matters were growing worse rather than better.

The world had looked upon Korea as the natural outlet for Japanese energy and Japanese emigration; and with that idea perhaps chiefly in mind the administrative authorities,—headed by the Governor-General, Count Terauchi,—set out, immediately after annexation, to bring conditions more nearly up to Japanese standards. The results of their endeavors are set forth in what has been aptly entitled a "Report on Reforms and Progress in Chosen (Korea)," covering the years 1912 and 1913. Copies of the report have just reached this country.

The reader is reminded that, Japan having passed through two costly though suc-

cessful wars, the finances of the empire necessitated a policy of retrenchment and the postponement of certain proposed public undertakings.

A new educational system was evolved, displacing a curriculum which consisted principally of a study of the Chinese classics. There is now provided a four-year course in the common schools, a higher-school system of four years, and one special school or college. Most of the higher grades give industrial training in order to enable graduates to obtain a livelihood. One hundred new public schools were opened in a single year, bringing the total to 340 with 44,000 students. Japanese is taught as the national language, but Korean is a regular subject of study.

As agriculture is the principal occupation, the Government directed its energies toward improving conditions and encouraging productive undertakings. A technical expert was appointed for each province, model farms and seedling stations were established, and improved seeds and fertilizers were distributed.

Rice is the chief article of food and also of export, and the authorities exerted their efforts to improve rice cultivation, with the result that the production increased 20 per cent. in the first two years after annexation. Climatic and soil conditions in the southern part of the peninsula are well suited to the growth of cotton, especially the American species. Under encouragement from the Government, the production of this species had increased sixfold by 1912, and measures already adopted indicate that by 1917 the value of the cotton crop will exceed \$5,000,000. It was worth about \$100,000 in 1909. Another aim of the Government is to develop silkworm culture, particularly as a means of affording a suitable industry for women.

The need of conserving the forests was early recognized. Suitable regulations were adopted, planting encouraged, and young trees distributed. During the year under review nearly 9,000,000 trees were distributed free of charge, and on Arbor Day more than 10,000,000 trees were planted.

Those who remember the achievements of the sanitary experts with the Japanese armies in the war with Russia, will not be surprised to learn that in Korea the deaths from epi-

demic diseases,—chiefly smallpox, dysentery, and cholera,—decreased from 1520 in 1910 to 965 in 1912. Where medical facilities are poor, qualified physicians are attached to police stations. Besides their official duties they extend medical aid to the people in general, and furnish medicines to Korean patients either free or at a low price. Every dwelling-house is thoroughly cleaned under police inspection twice a year.

Extensive highway improvements have been undertaken, with the twofold object of facilitating communication and assisting in the productive exploitation of the country. During the first three years of Japanese control, 5800 miles of highways were constructed by the central and local governments.

To the single railway line that ran the entire length of the peninsula, the Japanese have added a branch to each coast (the Yel-



A KOREAN GIRL DRYING RAW COTTON

(The development of an American species of cotton is one of the principal agricultural aims of the Japanese administration in Korea)

low Sea and the Sea of Japan), increasing the mileage by nearly 50 per cent.

Fusan, the terminus of the trunk line and the port nearest to Japan, has become the chief center of foreign trade, outstripping Chemulpo, the seaport of Seoul. Exports and imports have doubled since 1908, Japan doing twice as much business with Korea as all other nations combined.

The Imperial Japanese Government has allowed \$6,000,000 yearly for Korean administration, besides establishing a Donation Fund of about \$9,000,000, the interest from which is expended upon undertakings for affording means of livelihood, and upon educational and relief works. In other respects the modern administration and development of Korea has been supported by the ordinary revenues and by public loans, incurred since annexation, totaling less than \$15,000,000.



A CLASS IN A KOREAN PUBLIC SCHOOL

(The instructor is Japanese. The scholars are studying the construction of the mouth and throat. Several are using mirrors to follow the teacher's remarks)

THE TRAINING OF SINGERS

TO the current issue of the *Musical Quarterly* (New York) Mr. David C. Taylor contributes a refreshingly sane and sensible article on "Voice Culture Past and Present," which can hardly fail to benefit every singer, and every teacher as well as every student of singing, who will read it with open mind. "A General View of a Perplexing Subject" is the modest sub-title under which Mr. Taylor utters what he has to say, which in reality amounts to an enlightening analysis of the greatest problem in the whole realm of music to-day. There is probably no other specific branch of applied esthetics in which is to be found so wide a diversity of both theory and practise

as in the art of voice culture,—the training of singers.

From a theoretical study of vocal science alone the subject seems beautifully simple and clear. But the singer speedily finds that knowing how the vocal organs should operate is one thing, and making them operate in this manner is something entirely different. "It is a curious fact," Mr. Taylor remarks, "that the whole theoretical groundwork of modern voice culture has been laid by people who were neither singers nor musicians. They have considered their special work to consist only of formulating the laws of the vocal action. How these laws are to be utilized in the training of voices is a matter

which the theorists have left entirely to the teachers of singing. Confusion is the inevitable result of this division of responsibility."

Back of all modern vocal methods and practises, and even back of their theoretical groundwork, is the assumption that the activities of the vocal organs require to be consciously guided and directed by the singer. After describing the orthodox system of training in the management of the breath, the vocal cord action, the "placing" of the voice, and so on, Mr. Taylor says:

It is everywhere assumed that the voice cannot operate correctly without intelligent direction and oversight. The correct use of the voice is believed to depend on the conscious management of the muscular actions of the vocal organs. . . .

Vocal teachers approach their problem from the practical side. Experience soon teaches them that technical facility in the use of the voice can be acquired in only one way,—by daily practise in singing scales, exercises, and vocalises. Another lesson of experience is that everything depends on how an exercise is sung,—how the student handles his voice in practising. There is some one way of singing which is favorable to the development of the voice. . . . But there are a vast number of vocal students who experience great difficulty in finding out how to influence their voices in the correct way. . . .

How can the vocal organs be brought under the subjection of the will and made to act in the manner conducive to progress? For a solution of the problem they feel that they are limited to an application of the doctrines of vocal science. What they really desire is a means of inculcating a certain manner of singing,—a mode of vocal utterance which experience has shown them to be correct. The only current conception of this manner of handling the voice is that it consists of some particular management of breath, laryngeal action, and resonance. But the insufficiency of the scientific method to instruct the student on the vital point of tone production is a matter of common knowledge. If the scientific doctrine were sound and its application complete, all voices should derive equal benefit from the system. But this is far from the case. Exactly the same course of instruction in breathing, register formation, and tone placement puts some voices in the position to profit by further technical study, and leaves others little better off than when they began. The vocal problem thus interposes itself as a barrier to the progress of countless ambitious students.

In view of present conditions, the writer thinks it no wonder that the minds of vocalists are frequently turned toward the old Italian method. For, during the life of the old system, roughly speaking from about 1600 to 1855, there was no uncertainty about vocal training. Many modern teachers assert that they follow the old Italian system, but "any teacher whose method deals with breathing, tone placement, the singer's sensations, the expansion of the throat, etc., does

not represent the old school." Mr. Taylor continues:

So firmly is the scientific idea established that no one has thought to find in the old method anything but a set of rules for the control of the mechanical operations of the voice. Only one conclusion can be reached by investigation along this line. It would have to be admitted that the old masters knew more about the science of voice production than we do. But this is utterly at variance with the facts. Almost nothing of a scientific character was known about the vocal mechanism until the invention of the laryngoscope, in 1855. The old masters did not even know that the voice is produced by the pressure of the expired breath setting the vocal cords in vibration. Scientific principles could not have formed the basis of the old method.

Yet the fact remains that the old masters had some way of imparting the correct use of the voice, superior to the devices contained in modern methods. . . . Not only did they ignore the scientific principles of voice production,—they even went further than this, and failed to recognize any necessity for the conscious management of the voice's activities. . . .

There is no question that the old masters based their course of instruction on the natural use of the voice. They built up on that, and led from natural singing to the perfect technical command of all the vocal resources. . . . The modern idea is to discard natural singing as inherently incorrect, and to substitute for it an artificial manner of managing the vocal organs. This is the direct opposite of the old system, which followed the plan of refining and developing the natural manner of singing.

Nature's provision for the guidance of the singer's vocal organs is the singer's own ear; and the writer points out that this is a fact of such obvious truth that its bearing on the scheme of voice culture may easily be overlooked.

We can sing tones expressive of joy or of sorrow, harsh tones or tones of beautiful quality, loud tones or soft, just as we will. In every case the ear directs and the voice obeys automatically. This is Nature's mode of vocal guidance. . . .

For the production of vocal tones of any kind, the desired sounds are first conceived in the mind; a message is instantly carried from the brain to the muscles of the vocal organs, instructing them what movements are necessary to produce the tones demanded by the ear. There is an instinct by which the muscles concerned in voice production are guided, but this instinct is too mysterious for us to fathom. . . .

This is the psychological law of vocal management. In its practical bearing on the training of the voice it is really of vastly more importance than the physiological and acoustic laws of the vocal action. Why the psychological principle of the voice should have been so completely ignored by the vocal scientists is easily seen. Scientific investigation has been carried on only by throat specialists and acousticians. Each one has been concerned only with his own specialty, and the psychological laws of muscular control have lain outside their province. . . .

Under the modern idea the main purpose of every study is to enable the student to bring the will power to bear directly on the mechanical operations of the vocal organs. There is no time at which the attention of both teacher and pupil is not turned, in part at least, to the working of the pupil's throat and his management of the breath. In the older system nothing of the kind was ever thought of. Attention was devoted solely to the musical and esthetic aspects of the pupil's singing. Pure and beautiful tone was the one criterion of correctness. This was aimed at directly, and the vocal action by which it was attained was of no interest.

One of the doctrines of the old masters was that the training of the ear is of fully as much importance in the singer's education as the training of the voice. Why the old Italian method should ever have been abandoned is a baffling question. Pointing out the two weak points in the scientific system: that it sets out to do something which is already done by Nature in a thoroughly satisfactory manner, and that "even if the conscious management of the voice were both

possible and necessary, vocal science in its present state does not meet the requirement," Mr. Taylor thinks that the demand for a revival of the old Italian method, already heard among vocal teachers, will take on a new force when its principles are once definitely established.

But so sweeping a counter-revolution (as that the entire edifice of vocal science will ultimately be abandoned) is hardly to be expected. Much valuable information has been brought to light by the scientific investigation of the past sixty years. Voice culture will without doubt be the richer for this new knowledge, so soon as it is digested and brought into form available for practical use. Some way may be found for utilizing scientific knowledge, without involving the conscious direction of the vocal organs. A combination of the two systems, scientific and instinctive, may then be found to contain the most hopeful elements of a happy solution. When that has been reached we may be justified in the expectation that the old glories of the art of bel canto will be revived, and that methods of instruction will rival and even surpass the system of the old masters.

THE CHILDREN OF "STREETLAND"

WHAT of the children of "Streetland"? There are eleven million city children entrusted to us "for keeps," eleven million children in America who to a certain extent must find play or work in the city streets. How shall we help these children to health of mind and body and protect them from the danger and vice that slinks along the public highways of our cities? These questions are asked and answered in "Streetland," a book written by Philip Davis, editor of *The Field of Social Service*, director of Civic Service House, Boston, and formerly Supervisor of Licensed Minors in the Boston Public Schools.

While Mr. Davis' book is directly concerned with the problems of the street children of Boston, the principles he advocates and the remedies he suggests as alleviations of the evils of our over-crowded districts will apply to any and all cities. He takes the North End of Boston as a typical congested district. This part of Boston, known as Little Italy, was once the farm of one William Copp. The cowpaths of the old farm have become the famous crooked streets of the North End. The population of that part of Boston is 34,000, and the section is so fearfully congested that in some blocks the density of population reaches the appalling figure of 880 per acre, and the aver-



A BOY OF "STREETLAND"

age of twenty persons to each dwelling. The children are forced by sheer lack of dwelling space practically to live in the street. It is their work-room, their playground, and there they must learn the lessons in life that shall serve as the basis of their characters.

A brief word-picture of the Little Italy of Boston will serve to set forth conditions:

Visualize a maze of crooked streets that wind aimlessly nowhere in particular. From these streets, alleys break away at unexpected places,—alleys that lead to old-world courts squalid and colorful. Out of these courts emerge patient women clad in the everlasting black dresses of the alien women in America, bearing sad-eyed *bambinos* in their shawls. The pavements of the streets and alleys swarm with men, women, and children. The men saunter idly up and down clad in coarse, ill-fitting clothing that gives the impression of being hot and uncomfortable. The children are gay in cheap finery or filthy rags, but rags or gauds, everyone is cheerful in Little Italy. Here and there a picturesque granddam, who still clings to her peasant costume of a flowered silk head-dress, folded kerchief, and voluminous skirts, watches the children at play and cautions them with rollings of liquid vowels.

In North Square, the heart of the North End, the children swarm around curious little shops that face the square, where the unfamiliar eatables from "sunny Italy" are displayed. Here are the bakeries with yard-long loaves of bread hanging in the windows and bread twisted and baked in huge braids. On the sidewalks are the vegetable merchants and the fish-markets, where you can buy succulent salad vegetables and baby octopuses if you have a taste for that dainty; and over all hangs a spicy smell of garlic. Beyond, where the square widens, stands the Hotel Palermo, with its curious stained-glass windows and carved cornices. Farther on are the Italian banks, their windows filled with heaps of gold and bank-notes, and on a corner is an Italian book-shop where the street boys can buy Italian dime novels as thrilling as our own tales of Jesse James.

When you reach the corner of Salem Street and enter the Yiddish quarter the atmosphere changes. Swarms of children crowd the streets, but most of them are busy. Many children assist their parents in the shops; others peddle papers, candy, shoestrings,—anything to make a penny,—and importune the passerby nasally in imitation of their elders. In North Square one asked the question: What *shall* we do for the child who plays in the street? In Salem Street one wonders what we *can* do for the child who must work there.

So within the confines of the North End, divided, but in juxtaposition, you find the two great problems of "Streetland," play and work. In "Little Italy," the tuneful strains of "Il Trovatore," idleness, garlic, *bambinos*, and blessed dirtiness; and close at hand in Salem Street, a frenzy for work,—the flux of the intake of commercialism.

Mr. Davis asks us to consider the kind of men and women we shall have growing up in America from environments like that of Bos-

ton's North End and the East Side in New York, if we do not quickly and efficiently take the streets in hand and look after the children who make their home in them.

Every city should have a comprehensive system of public and private recreation supervised by a recreation board with a superintendent in charge. Such a board should utilize all parks, playgrounds, playfields, schoolhouses, and even streets, for recreation purposes to meet the demands of every element in the community. Such a board should exercise strict censorship over all places of amusement, such as moving-pictures, burlesque shows, dance-halls, and poolrooms. Without discouraging any legitimate form of private recreation, it should insist on strict enforcement of laws and regulations controlling commercialized amusement.

The kind of juvenile delinquency that comes from the ranks of street children Mr. Davis finds to have primarily come from seeking fun and adventure. The restriction imposed on the play instinct is in a measure responsible for trespassing and minor law-breaking. He asks us to consider the "night-children," the newsies, the messengers, the juvenile food scavengers, beggars, and petty thieves who live in our city streets after darkness has fallen. If their parents will not or cannot care for them and restrain them the authorities must do so.

Night life militates against children's health and growth to a greater extent than has been realized. Over-stimulation, in place of rest and sleep which growing children need, tends to undermine even the strongest constitutions. It needs no physiologist to perceive that the ravages of night life help materially to reduce measurements of weight, height, and chest, and to weaken heart, lungs, and eyes. . . . Moreover, their education suffers. Children who are out until midnight must report at school the next morning, although tired and mentally dull. Night life destroys the habits of industry,—loitering and loafing becomes rooted into a habit.

Chicago, always true to its motto "I Will," was the first of the leading cities to appoint a squad of policewomen to keep young folk off the street late at night. Thus the police matron, or street mother, is here at last. Her arrival marks the first important step in the working out of a system of street supervision of child life.

Great Britain, Germany, Austria, and France have in the past two decades, Mr. Davis writes, instituted inquiries into the kinds of work done by children in the streets which have resulted in national laws. The industrial code of Germany, for instance, does not permit children under fourteen to peddle or offer goods for sale, and it forbids children under twelve to deliver goods or run errands other than for their parents.

Our own census of 1910 revealed the fact that we have in this country nearly two million children of ten to sixteen years of age at work, and these figures are considered to underestimate the true number. We must consider the conditions under which these children work if we see our plain duty.

The dangers in street occupations to the health, education, and morals of children have not received sufficient attention. . . . We need to be reminded that the street work engages children at the most critical period of life, adolescence. All physical and mental processes are accelerated during these years. Special tendencies are manifested in both sexes. Tubercular disorders, internal diseases, and peculiar disturbances of the nervous system are likely to arise during these years of premature toil. The hurry in which a street worker eats his lunch and the unwholesomeness and inadequacy of the food cannot but undermine his digestive system. Any child who has no time to play is too busy to grow. More-

over, the rush and excitement of street work are likely to materially affect the nervous system. These dangers should receive the immediate and earnest attention of every enlightened community. Neither can the State afford to ignore them.

After a thorough exposition of the dangers that wait for the children of the streets, Mr. Davis outlines programs for their supervision that include the enactment of street legislation, neighborhood interest and vigilance, and in the future, intelligent city planning that will do away with the savage environment that "makes many city children little savages."

This useful and inspiring book is offered to the public in the hope that it may be widely read and stimulate a general movement to provide a happier and a safer environment for the little people in "Streetland."¹

HOME RULE FOR AMERICAN CITIES— FROM THE NEW YORK VIEWPOINT

AT the moment when New York State's Constitutional Convention, or that part of it, at least, composing the Cities Committee, is wrestling at Albany with the important question whether the new Constitution shall grant to the municipalities of the State any larger powers of self-government than they now have, the *Yale Review* makes a helpful contribution to the discussion in the shape of an eminently readable and good-humored as well as wise article on "Home Rule for American Cities," by Mr. Henry H. Curran. Mr. Curran is a member of the Board of Aldermen of New York City, and chairman of its Committee of Finance. He is one of the aldermen of the new type, who, in the last two or three years, have rehabilitated their ancient office,—which by reason of the growth of petty abuses and general incompetence on the part of its incumbents had sunk so low as to invite abolishment,—who have completely transformed the New York Board of Aldermen from "a collection of curious little local potentates" into a genuine legislature bent on constructive work in the public interest.

Mr. Curran begins his article with a consideration of the "commission" form of city government, which came into being as a direct result of the hurricane of 1900 that wrecked the city of Galveston, and which

was so effective there that its new-hewn form has been copied the country over. "How does it work?" he asks. "Can it do for the larger cities what it seems to be doing for the smaller?"

The answer, so far as the big city is concerned, is "No!" Taking first the case of New York, as the extreme of the big cities, one may work back among the others. It will be enough to picture the task that would confront the first New York "commission." . . . A city of nearly six million people awaits their administration. A net funded debt of almost a billion dollars provides the initial impost, and they discover that it costs nearly two hundred million dollars a year to run the town. There are 20,000 school-teachers on the pay-rolls, to care for the 800,000 pupils; 11,000 policemen, 5,000 firemen, and 3,000 street-cleaners add their quotas. In all, there are some 80,000 men and women to be managed by the five commissioners. They find they have taken over twenty-nine city departments, each of which was formerly administered by a commissioner or board appointed by the mayor. They have succeeded not only the mayor, but all his commissioners. Police, fire, health, education, parks, docks, street-cleaning, water-supply, bridges, licenses,—these and a score more of subjects have fallen to the governing of the five. The harassing duties of the comptroller they have also inherited, as well as the paving, building, sewerage, and other tasks of the five borough presidents. Even the diverse duties of the chamberlain and the coroners have entered the concentrated circle. Finally, the five new commissioners have completely absorbed the two deliberative boards of the city,—the Board of Estimate and Apportionment and the Board of Aldermen. . . .

¹ Streetland. By Philip Davis. Small, Maynard. 291 pp., ill. \$1.35.

There are 326 square miles of area and 577 miles of water-front in New York. This urban monster has already become the greatest seaport and manufacturing city in the world, by actual count of tonnage and goods. . . . Her assessed real estate value is \$8,049,859,912; her humblest citizen shares an empire whose cost of government is six dollars a second. So much for a certain overpowering immensity that has come to this child of a new continent. Five men will do well to administer a corner of any such domain.

In addition to the incident of size, there is the condition of a bewilderingly mixed and miscellaneous population, including every nationality, race, religion, prejudice, and precedent. According to the last census 78 per cent. of all the people in New York City were whites of foreign birth or parentage, and 40 per cent. of the whole were actually foreign-born.

Cheek by jowl, elbow to elbow, the nations and the generations nest a branch apart, and in the struggle for self-preservation fight, compete, intermarry, and blend. Intense must be the task and desperate the effort of him who would essay to govern well here. For nowhere more than in these cities,—the refuges of the oppressed,—is it true that government must be by the consent of the governed,—“of the people, by the people, and for the people”; and what a people it is, to hitherto five commissioners by three prepositions!

Let the smaller cities wrestle with this “commission” medicine; what their bigger brethren need first is a little Home Rule,—a household remedy, as old as the hills, but ever denied to American cities.

Calling to mind that, from the earliest days, American cities have been “the football of capricious legislatures,” Mr. Curran instances a few typical examples of legislative intervention in purely local affairs.

In 1870, out of 808 bills passed at Albany, 212 were special bills relating to cities. In 1914, out of some 1200 bills introduced, 525 related to local communities; of these, 217 affected New York City alone. Not an angle or phase of local city life has escaped the attention of the Solons. “The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly,” have “enacted” that Portchester may borrow money to repair a firehouse, that village trustees may not sprinkle village streets, that Saratoga Springs may license dogs, and that Patrolman Campbell, who had been dismissed from the New York police force some years before for “shooting craps” on post, might be reinstated. The Massachusetts lawmakers have served their State by enacting that Beverly may re-locate a draw in the Essex bridge, that Boston may change the name of the Penitent Female Refuge, and that under certain conditions the good people of Edgartown may take eels from their oyster-pond. The Virginia representative now votes that R. H. Atkinson may erect a wharf on Chuckatuck Creek. In Wisconsin the dome of the State capitol looks down upon the giving of legislative permission to maintain bath-

houses at Hicks Lake. These are some of the prerogatives that legislatures have said could not be trusted to the people of the cities.

But in recent years the larger American cities, as well as many smaller ones also, have made rapid progress in proving themselves perfectly capable of self-government. In New York itself, the largest of the cities and perhaps the most difficult of self-government, the writer says, this renaissance has made the most spectacular strides. Since 1902, when the city “emerged from the mire of a four-year saturnalia of incompetence and corruption,” an ever-broadening advance has been made in administrative industry and efficiency, until to-day “it may safely be said that New York is at this moment better governed than at any time since Governor Nicolls gave the city its first charter, in 1665. Even the long-derided Board of Aldermen has finally come into its own, and to those who know the town nothing could be more indicative of the change that has come over it.” Mr. Curran’s account of this rehabilitation of the aldermanic body, in which he himself had no inconsiderable part, is particularly interesting.

The aldermanic office in New York touched low-water mark in 1884, when Jake Sharp bought a franchise for the running of cable cars in Broadway, from Fourteenth Street to the Battery, at the rate of \$20,000 an alderman. Thereafter, each ensuing legislature vied with its predecessors in curtailing the powers of the aldermen, until there was left only a job-lot of petty duties,—“a strange assortment of executive, judicial, and unclassified functions of Lilliputian calibre that left neither time nor taste for the exacting work of a city’s legislature.”

For twenty years there has been in each board a hard-hitting minority that incessantly cast its negative votes against this order of things. In the present board, however, a majority had finally fallen heir to the ideas of the old minorities. The personnel of this majority boded ill to the old régime. With no one or two or three men looming above the rest, these 1914 aldermen, by a common instinct, set to work to change the whole course of the aldermanic orbit. They have succeeded. One by one the licensing functions have been swept out of the legislative house and into the executive offices where they belong. The question of “favors,” which permeates American government,—as it does all human nature,—right up to the seats of the mighty, was put definitely in its place. In police matters the door is shut entirely, and this is one of the recent changes that have brought the police of New York to-day to a point of integrity and efficiency that is an inspiration to the whole city service. In other spheres, the merits of the case, rather than the potency of the messenger, have been made the

test. . . . The rules of the board were liberalized. . . . The committees were reduced in number and rearranged in function, so that every one of the seventy-three aldermen now has responsible committee work to perform. In this, as in many other things, the legislators at Albany and Washington have something to learn in New York.

These house-cleaning matters were settled with a speed that caused the rail-birds of City Hall to rub their eyes with wonder. It is not to be supposed that they were settled without a fight; but they were settled. By April, 1914, the board was ready for its constructive work, and from that time to the present there has been a steady stream of well-considered and long-overdue legislation making its way to the statute-books of the city. . . . New York's circle of competent self-government is complete. The toughest nut of American city government has been cracked, and a satisfied and alert electorate will not allow the hands of the clock to be turned back.

If, on top of this civic renaissance, the great American cities are still to be ruled from State capitols as domestic colonies, and with patent-medicine "commissions" suddenly superimposed, to boot, there may well be cause for concern. The restoration of a local legislature to New York City, in the rehabilitation of its Board of Aldermen, is a case in point. This board has proven a balance-wheel of peculiar value. . . . Besides thus serving as a check upon the city's business administration, the aldermen are supreme,—subject only to the mayor's suspensive veto,—in the field of ordinance-making. Legislation that lays down rules of conduct, as distinguished from that which spends or taxes, is the province of the aldermen.

More and more of this kind of local legislation becomes necessary with the growth of the cities and the perplexing interweavings that follow every new invention.

THE "NATION" CELEBRATES ITS JUBILEE

WITH its issue for July 8 the *Nation* (New York) completed fifty years of continuous publication as the weekly "monitor and mouthpiece of intellectual America," and it fittingly observed the occasion by publishing a special number of extraordinary interest and value. Besides the usual features, this number contains a remarkable group of articles, chiefly reminiscent and historical, concerning the *Nation*, its founder, Edwin Lawrence Godkin, and his early associates, by Lord Bryce, Henry James, A. V. Dicey, Judge Charles C. Nott, Arthur G. Sedgwick, William C. Brownell, Professor Basil L. Gildersleeve, Gustav Pollak, Henry Holt, George Haven Putnam, William Roscoe Thayer, and others.

As Mr. Pollak truthfully avers in his delightful paper on "The *Nation* and Its Contributors," "Few periodicals in the history of journalism can claim, like the *Nation*, to have preserved their original features essentially unchanged during fifty years of continuous existence. The *Nation* of the present day may safely challenge comparison with the number which, on July 6, 1865, was issued by Edwin Lawrence Godkin, as editor-in-chief, and Wendell Phillips Garrison, as literary editor." That this periodical, practically unique in American journalism, has survived many other weekly papers of high aims and exclusive character, has weathered recurrent passages through troubled financial waters, and to-day flourishes in the enjoyment of good health and at least a modicum

of prosperity, is cause for congratulation to all who value the things of the mind.

That it still perpetuates the impress of its departed founder testifies to a new generation of readers who knew him not (even the present editor did not know him) something of the remarkable quality of the man. E. L. Godkin was an Englishman, born in Ireland in 1831, the son of a Presbyterian minister, who later became a journalist. He came to America in 1856. Mr. Henry Holt, veteran publisher, in a charming paper of recollections which he calls "A Young Man's Oracle," says of Godkin:

It is very doubtful whether any journalist but Horace Greeley ever had so enthusiastic a group of such adoring followers as Godkin's. His group never was as large a percentage of the public as Greeley's, and of course was a different set of people, from the opposite pole. How he did make the Philistines squirm, and how they did hate him! But no editor of my time has begun to have the authority among educated people that he had. I doubt if any editor of any time has had as much. . . .

This country has had no journalist to equal Godkin, unless Franklin was a journalist. America did not produce him to the same extent that it produced Carl Schurz: for Godkin developed younger. Schurz, I think, came here younger, and, as we all know, to escape governmental tyranny, and Godkin, I have always suspected, came to escape social tyranny. He could not brook social inferiority, or even the ascription of it. . . .

Being in temperament a thorough aristocrat, of course he could not make a popular paper, and did not care to. Though he was the greatest journalist we ever had, "the people" never knew

even his name. Yet his influence was probably greater than Greeley's, because it was greater on people of influence. He was an authority with authorities.

Viscount Bryce, who on his first visit to America in 1870 brought a letter of introduction to Godkin from Leslie Stephen, says that the *Nation* had from the first three distinctive merits: "It was brilliantly written. It was full of wit. It was conspicuously independent and individual." He writes of its founder:

E. L. Godkin was stringent in his criticisms, and as he made many friends (for he was a charming companion and a loyal comrade), so he made a good many enemies. The fiercest of these enemies were to be found among those Tammany leaders whom he incessantly assailed. But even with men who had the same aims as his own and were working honestly for them, he sometimes dealt rather hardly. I used now and then to suggest to him that he did not make sufficient allowance for the difficulties in which honorable and public-spirited men are placed by

the exigencies of practical politics. . . . It was the rigidity of the standard he applied that made his judgments severe, not any personal bitterness, still less any disappointed ambitions, for he had no axes to grind and never sought anything for himself.

The temptation is strong to quote other good things from this surpassingly good Jubilee Number, but the lack of space forbids. While there is a good deal of looking backward in it, it does not end on the purely commemorative note. The present editor holds that the past of the *Nation* ought to be a pledge for the present and a guarantee of its future. If it has seen many of the causes advocated by it come to triumph, there are others still to be struggled for. Coming days are to be fronted bravely. It is a self-renewing institution. "The spirit of youth is forever interpenetrating it. So that there is the more reason for confidence as it grows old, since, with Rabbi Ben Ezra, it may hope that the best is yet to be."

A TRIBUTE OF RUSSIAN WRITERS TO ENGLISH

SOME time ago a group of English men of letters addressed an appeal to the writers of Russia. In replying to that appeal 67 Russian writers and publicists have signed an address, the text of which appears in the Moscow daily newspaper *Outro Rossii*. We quote certain significant passages from this address:

We have known you for a long time. We have known you since we, Russians, came to a communion with Western Europe and began to draw from the great spiritual treasury created by our brethren of Western Europe.

From generation to generation we have watched intently the life of England, and have stored away in our minds and our hearts everything brilliant, peculiar, and individual, that has impressed itself upon the English word, the English thought, and the English life.

We have always wondered at the breadth and the manifoldness of the English soul, in whose literature one finds, side by side, Milton and Swift, Scott and Shelley, Shakespeare and Byron. We have always been amazed by the incessant and constantly growing power of civic life in England; we have always known that the English people was the first among the peoples of the world to enter upon a struggle for civic rights, and that nowhere does the word *freedom* ring so proud and so triumphant as it does in England.

We feel proud because you have recognized the great individual worth of the Russian literature, and we are moved by your ardent expressions of

sympathy and friendship. You scarcely know what Lord Byron was to us at the dawn of our literature, how our greatest poets, Poushkin and Lermontov, were swayed by him. You scarcely know to what an extent the Shakespearean Hamlet, the Prince of Denmark, has become a part of our literature, how near to us is Hamlet's tragedy.

We, too, pronounce the names of Copperfield and Snodgrass with a little difficulty, but the name of Dickens is as familiar to us and as near to our hearts as the names of some of our own writers.

We trust, and we even permit ourselves to hope, that our friendship will not end on the fields of battle, but that our mutual understanding will continue to grow, as it lives on together with those sincere and heartfelt words with which you have addressed us. We trust that it will be transformed into a spiritual unity between us, a unity based on the universal achievements of the spirit of humanity.

We trust even further. We trust that evil will finally become extinguished in the hearts of men, that mutual ill-feeling will be bitter and poignant no longer, and that, when ears of corn will be again fluttering upon the fields, mutilated by trenches and ramparts, and drenched in human blood, when wild flowers will begin to grow over the countless unknown graves that will come when the nations that are separated by such a tremendous gulf to-day will come together again upon the one great road of humanity and will turn back once more to the great, universal words that are common to all men.

We trust and we hope.
Greetings to you.

THE NEW BOOKS

POETRY

"SONNETS to Sidney Lanier,"¹ written by his brother Clifford, bring us the literary expression of a great affection between two brothers who represented not only the best blood of the South, but the rarest intellectual development of this country. Mr. Edward Howard Griggs, in a graceful introduction, calls attention to the fact that Clifford and Sidney Lanier were devoted to each other throughout their boyhood and early manhood; that they fought together during the Civil War, endured bravely its sorrow and hardships, and supported each other with mutual good cheer during the trials of the reconstruction period, and on until the end of Sidney Lanier's fight with broken health that robbed the Southland of its greatest poet. These sonnets seem the stanzas of a hymn to intellectual and spiritual beauty: "Thou magic breather of the silver flute. . . . Thou hast for garner all the world's great heart. . . . Master Architect of tone . . . thy life all music"; such phrases record a fraternal bond that transcended the limits of earthly affection and recognized that neither Death nor Time can destroy the love that is of the Spirit.

The fifth sonnet reveals Clifford Lanier as a poet second in powers of expression only to his gifted brother:

"Thou magic breather of the silver flute,
Arion, skilful of our later time—
Enchanting men by thy enchanted lute,
And driving to thy yoke of lusty rhyme
Wild sea-shapes strange and deepest mysteries,
In that all-boundless ocean of thine art;
Who, coming to thy called consistories,
Straight do thy bidding and espouse thy part;
So that thou buoyest high upon the wave
To Havens sweet, in Fame's proud glories
drest—
Behold, already thy tamed coursers lave
Their shining figures in Fame's port of rest;
And thou, wave-beaten bard, in kingly form,
Art promontoried high above all storm!"

The lyrics published with these sonnets are taken from a volume, "Apollo and Keats," published privately in 1902.

"The New World,"² a poem by Witter Bynner, is a beautiful tribute to a woman who visioned the possibilities of our youthful democracy in America, and saw in every human relationship the soul of man striving toward the last sacrament, that of union with God. Under the title "An Immigrant," it was read in part to the Har-

vard chapter of the Phi Beta Kappa Society in 1911:

"It is my faith that God is our own dream
Of perfect understanding of the soul.
It is my passion that alike through me
And every member of eternity,
The source of God is sending the same stream.
It is my peace that when my life is whole,
God's life shall be completed and supreme."

The poems of Mary Artemisia Lathbury,³ the Chautauqua Laureate, have been collected and published in a single volume with an introduction by Bishop John H. Vincent and W. Garret Horder, sacred anthologist, and also a sketch of her life by Miss Frances E. Willard. Bishop Vincent writes of her that she was both poet and saint; that old Chautauquans will never forget her, and the new Chautauquans will sing her songs and learn of her sweet, devout spirit. For several years she was a contributor to *St. Nicholas*, *Harper's Young People*, and *Wide Awake*. Mr. Horder ranks the hymn "Day Is Dying in the West" with "Lead, Kindly Light"; and Frances Willard writes that her songs have "gone to the ends of the earth." Mary Lathbury was a native of New York State. She studied art in Worcester, Massachusetts, and later taught in Newbury, Vermont, at the Fort Edward Institute, and at the Carmel Ladies' Seminary, New York. Several of her books were illustrated by her own exquisite sketches in black and white and in color.

"Visions of the Dusk"⁴ is the second book of song from the pen of the young negro poet, Fenton Johnson, whose first book, "A Little Dreaming," gave promise of a lyric gift comparable to that of the gifted Paul Laurence Dunbar. The verse of this second volume shows a distinct gain in breadth, power, and facility in the use of verse-forms. The dialect poems and the spirituals are rich with warm, throaty music; and the tributes to Douglass and other great men of his race, while they do not sustain in every case the level of their inspiration, are yet distinguished by nobility and emotional dominance. In "Ethiopia," the poet invokes the spirit of his race, the glory that was, when the pomp of the Queen of Sheba's caravan crossed the sands of the Arabic Sabæa desert. Mr. Johnson has had the courage to keep away from mere literary poetry, to value the traditions of his race, and delve into their ancient history. A feeling for sensuous word-color and a freedom in the use of the invocational chant distinguish his most lyrical inspirations.

¹ Sonnets to Sidney Lanier. By Clifford Anderson Lanier. Introduction by E. H. Griggs. Huebsch. 50 pp. 75 cents.

² The New World. By Witter Bynner. Kennerley. 65 pp. 60 cents.

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³ The Poems of Mary Artemisia Lathbury. The Nunc Licet Press, Minneapolis, Minn. 292 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ Visions of the Dusk. By Fenton Johnson. Published by the author. 71 pp.

"The Man on the Hilltop,"¹ a collection of thirty-eight poems by Arthur Ficke, follows his notable collection, "The Sonnets of a Portrait Painter." The author was born in Davenport, Iowa, and while studying taught English for a year at the University of Iowa. He has traveled widely and published six volumes of verse. His work is marked by virile intellectuality, lyric charm, fertility of imagination, and the intoxication of hero worship. This volume contains two long narrative poems and a group of lyrics and another of grotesques.

"Youth's Pilgrimage,"² by Roy Helton, pictures in lyric measures the awakening of a youth and a maid to the knowledge of life and love. The imagery is rarely beautiful and the poem is well sustained. Mr. Helton is a scientist-poet of Lansdowne, Pennsylvania.

"Our Gleaming Days,"³ a slender volume of lyrics, comes from a Harvard poet, Daniel Sargeant.

¹ The Man on the Hilltop. By Arthur Davison Ficke. Kennerley. 104 pp. \$1.25.

² Youth's Pilgrimage. By Roy Helton. Badger. 39 pp. 75 cents.

³ Our Gleaming Days. By Daniel Sargeant. Badger. 64 pp. \$1.

geant, once class odist at Harvard University, and now assistant instructor in English. The collection is as a rule graceful and pleasing and full of promise of more and better poesy to come. One remarkable poem, "The Stirrup Cup," gives us a taste of the innate quality of Mr. Sargeant's inspiration. It is like a draught of sparkling wine mixed with mystery and nepenthe, and the movement gallops like the dream horses of the song.

Shaemas O'Sheel calls his latest book of verse "The Light Feet of Goats."⁴ The book is dedicated to dreams,—that are the light feet of goats on the crags of the world." Several poems of great lyric beauty distinguish a collection that is curiously uneven as regards both technique and inspiration. Mr. O'Sheel's best work, however, has gathered the immortal magic of song into fresh garlands. "He Whom a Dream Hath Possessed," "To My Master of Song; William Butler Yeats," "Roma Mater Sempætterna,"—and from another point of judgment,—*"The Final Mercy,"* are poems that grip the reader with their imaginative intensity.

⁴ The Light Feet of Goats. By Shaemas O'Sheel. Kennerley. 63 pp. \$1.

RUSSIAN PLAYS AND NOVELS

A NOTABLE sacred drama, "The King of the Jews," has been translated from the Russian of "K.P.," the Grand Duke Constantine, by Victor E. Marsden. The action takes place at Jerusalem during the week between Christ's entry into the city and the day of His resurrection. The drama has power, color, and atmosphere. The diction is simple and direct. Three sharply defined social masses emerge as the play progresses. First, the Imperial Government of Rome and its long-reaching tentacle that held Judea under the dominion of the Roman Law; second, the lick-spittle Pharisees and Sadducees who, secretly hating Cæsar, praised him with mouth-fawnings; thirdly, the common people, the rabble of the streets who clamored to save the Man out of Galilee who gave sight to the blind and raised the dead.

Twisted between these opposing forces, Pontius Pilate, the Roman Procurator of Judea, is revealed to us as a pitiable figure, yet one that wins our sympathy. Procula, Pilate's wife, pleads for the life of

the Galilean. Pilate reproves her with these words: "You ask what is impossible. . . . Aye, there are reasons your woman's mind would hardly understand: reasons of state."

The author, harking to the mind of the Russian peasant to-day, places these words in the mouth of Nicodemus:

"These peasants' pure simplicity of soul
Ay touches me and makes me envious,
too;
In all the heart's dictates they blindly trust,
Nor ever know a doubt."

The action of the drama is in a sense interrupted by forcing in the discussion between Procula and the Tribunes concerning the decadence of the Roman women. The faults and sins of these women,—which are those attributed to the frivolous women of to-day,—are pictured as the chief contributing cause of the age of fallen morals that brought about the fall of the Roman Empire.

The description of the settings may well be carefully noted by the student. They are repre-



THE GRAND DUKE CONSTANTINE

sentative of the careful scenic production given in Russian drama during the last decade.¹

Leonid Andreyev, the great Russian writer, has written a powerful and moving play, "The Sorrows of Belgium."² He has taken the foremost Belgian thinker,—a man probably intended to be Maeterlinck,—and King Albert for his principal characters, and through them he reveals the conscience and the aspiration of the Belgian nation. The play moves in the exalted atmosphere of the triumph of right over wrong, of the victory of life over death. Already for Belgium dawns the resurrection morn in the sparks of individual wills that shall at a given moment create the enormous energy necessary to rehabilitate the nation. The play has been written in the interests of universal peace. The English translation is admirably rendered by Herman Bernstein.

"Submerged"³ is a new version of Maxim Gorki's famous drama previously known to the public under the German title "Nachtaysl." It gives a Russian treatment of the theme of "The Third Floor Back." A "Man of Light" comes to a miserable lodging-house and tries to awaken the souls of its sullen inhabitants. Gorki accuses society of neglecting to aid those who are in the depths. For those who are actually submerged, society's verdict is always "thumbs down."

The books of the Russian realists flare against the sinister background of the present war like torches against the night. They pour forth the fires of the slow-smouldering forces that even now, beneath the sound of the cannon, are trans-

forming Russia into a democracy. Michael Artzibashef is the latest of these realists to come to English readers. Two books, "Sanine"⁴ and "The Millionaire,"⁵ have been most admirably translated by Percy Pinkerton. Artzibashef has color and an emotional intensity that bites into the reader's sensibilities. "Sanine" is a study of individualism, a single phase of a man's life exaggerated beyond all proportion,—a masterly piece of work, but not agreeable reading. The second volume, which includes three shorter stories, enables the critic definitely to place Artzibashef with his literary kindred, Gorki, Tchekoff, Dostoevsky, and Tolstoy. The title story shows us the unhappy rich man, who cannot buy what he most desires, namely love, respect, and appreciation for his own worth. He bungles through life, the victim of his wealth, and dies miserably by jumping over the side of a boat, self-conscious even in death, for he hopes no one will see him. "Ivan Lande" is a noble, but not an original, conception. Possibly all the changes have been rung long ago on the theme of a man who actually tries to live on earth as Jesus Christ did. But even so, it is the compelling story of the volume, and it sounds the immortal message: "For whosoever will save his life shall lose it; but whosoever will lose his life for my sake, the same shall save it."

Michael Artzibashef is thirty-eight years of age, of Tartar blood and descended on his maternal side from Kosciusko. He suffered greatly during his boyhood and contracted tuberculosis. This probably accounts for the tendency revealed in his work to study the mental and physical phenomena peculiar to this disease.

A GREAT AUSTRIAN DRAMATIST

THE social reformer of to-day must not reckon without Arthur Schnitzler, the greatest of the Viennese dramatists and second only to Hauptmann among those dramatists who write in the German tongue. Three of Schnitzler's plays, specimens of the work of his maturity, appear in the Modern Drama Series. They are "The Lonely Way," "Intermezzo," and "The Countess Mizzie." Heretofore we have known Schnitzler in translation only by his "Anatol," a series of sketches of a man's light love affairs, a work written twenty-two years ago. Mr. Edwin Björkman, who has translated these plays and prepared an excellent critical and interpretative introduction, calls attention to the fact that Schnitzler is a Jew, and that in Vienna, more than in any other European capital, this means isolation and a certain conflict with environment. These facts are reflected in the work of the dramatist. Arthur Schnitzler was born in Vienna in 1862. His father was a famous Jewish throat specialist. The son studied medicine and pursued his father's calling until 1895, at which time his growing fame as a dramatist persuaded him to step aside from the medical pro-

fession. His training has enriched his dramatic material; he is a master of psychology who reaches through the physical phenomena of life to touch the whiffling balances of our reasonableness, and the erraticisms of the mainsprings of our impulses.

He has taken middle-class life in the gayest capital of Europe and spread it before us, not as a theorist, but as one who observes minutely and is not deceived. His plays are parts of the great drama of life deflected by a lens of keen intellectuality upon the stage of our emotions and played by each man according to his perceptions. Schnitzler belongs to the latter-day prophets of truth,—those who would strip away all self-deception from the complexities of life wherein we moderns are enmeshed. His plays are the bulletins of the social conscience as it plays through the emotions. "The Lonely Way" values life for those who have never learned that love is service, and service love. For those who will not serve, there lies ahead the "lonely way" of desolate, disillusioned old age,—or suicide.

"Intermezzo" is one of the subtlest of the Schnitzler dramas. It weaves the question of a single moral standard for men and women into a

¹ The King of the Jews. By the Grand Duke Constantine. Translated by Victor Marsden. Funk & Wagnalls. 157 pp. \$1.

² The Sorrows of Belgium. By Leonid Andreyev. Macmillan. 132 pp. \$1.25.

³ Submerged. By Maxim Gorki. Badger. 142 pp. 75 cents.

⁴ Sanine. By Michael Artzibashef. Huebsch. 315 pp. \$1.35.

⁵ The Millionaire. By Michael Artzibashef. Huebsch. 243 pp. \$1.25.

domestic situation that falls into chaos through a lack of simple honesty and unquestioning faithfulness. Cecelia and Amadeus make a compact of friendship when they agree to end their married estate. Each one is horrified at the other's resignation to the separation, but each dissembles and plays the hypocrite. Afterwards the woman cannot bring herself to build again upon their mutual dishonesty.

In "The Countess Mizzie," the Countess, a ballet dancer, the Count, a coachman and a noble Prince for a brief hour, meet at the same level,—

the recognition of identical emotional experience. Here Schnitzler's irony is leveled at the social conventions that outrage human emotions. All the personages in this drama were social cowards; they dared not take what they wanted except clandestinely. One noble act would have saved all of them. Schnitzler's phrases are like scourges in the temples of desecrated gods. To him there is no hell like the hell of the coward who denies his own soul. Mr. Björkman's introduction to this unusual volume gives a complete review of Schnitzler's dramatic production.¹

TALES, PLAYS, AND ESSAYS



LORD DUNSANY

LORD DUNSANY, the author of brilliant plays, essays, short stories, fairy tales, and a new mythology, has gathered together "Fifty-One Tales" into a single volume.² They are unique,—a combination of piquant humor, satire, and truth, poured into a structure of prose that now resembles "Æsop's Fables," and again the "Thousand and One Tales." The story of "The Three Tall Sons" pictures a city builded by man, wherein Nature has no part. After a time Nature, in the guise of an old woman, comes begging at the gate, but the inhabitants of this city, obsessed by their artificial civilization, drive her away. She goes, but her three tall sons come and force an entrance into the city. They are Nature's sons, "the forlorn one's terrible children,—War, Famine, and Plague."

In another delightful tale, Lord Dunsany mourns the death of Pan, but at the end pictures the shaggy god slipping like a sly shadow out of his tomb to return once more unto his own.

"The State Forbids," by Sara Cowan (Kennerley), is a virile little drama that deals with our failure to revise our outworn laws and ethics to fit present needs. "Love in Danger" (Houghton, Mifflin) includes three plays that are concerned with happiness in married life. They are excellent reading plays. "The Lie," by Henry Arthur Jones (Doran), was a great success in New York last season. It is a study of the contest between two sisters for the right of way to love and happiness. "The Smile of Mona Lisa," by Jacinto Benavente, translated from the Spanish by John Herman (Badger), explains the smile of Leonardo da Vinci's masterpiece. Benavente is one of Spain's most brilliant poet-dramatists. "Der Tag, or the Tragic Man," by J. M. Barrie (Scribner's), deals with the causes of the present war.

"Paradise Found,"³ by Allen Upward,—the adventures of Bernard Shaw in a Shavian world,—is one of the wittiest and most amusing books of the year. Through enchantment Bernard Shaw is cast into a trance, his form preserved as a sacred relic, and at the end of two hundred years he is awakened into a world that is governed entirely by his philosophical and sociological precepts. Shaw is disgusted with the practical workings of his ideas and welcomes the resumption of his magical sleep as a happy escape from the evils of a Shavian universe.

Herbert Kaufman's book, "Neighbors,"⁴ brings your neighbors to you,—the real ones, not the comfortable friends who chance to live next door or in the next block. "Maggie" the factory girl, the bad boy of the street, the beggar man, other people's daughters, "Tommy's Mother," Mary who "went wrong,"—these and others more fortunate he pictures to you as living folk hungry for your sympathy and helpfulness. Then there are little preachments about gentleness and the joy of living,—vital, thrilling words that throw open the doors of our hearts to the wonder of the universe.

¹ The Lonely Way: Intermezzo: Countess Mizzie. By Arthur Schnitzler. Translated by Edwin Björkman. Kennerley. 323 pp. \$1.50.

² Fifty-One Tales. By Lord Dunsany. Kennerley. 138 pp. \$1.25.

³ Paradise Found. By Allen Upward. Houghton, Mifflin. 99 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ Neighbors. By Herbert Kaufman. Doran. 144 pp. 75 cents.

BOOKS FOR THE WEST-BOUND TRAVELER

THE American traveling public, and especially those individuals who are interested in promoting the "See America First" movement, are indebted to Director George Otis Smith, of the United States Geological Survey, for the compilation of an authorized "Guidebook of the Western United States."¹ Of this work, which will ultimately consist of four parts published in separate bulletins of the Survey, Part B, covering the overland route, with a side trip to Yellowstone Park, has just appeared. So far as we are aware, no guidebook on precisely these lines has ever before been published. The reader is put in possession of the most accurate information regarding the geological basis, so to speak, of the entire region over which the route passes. A relief map is supplied which shows the surface features, and a route map is given in the form of a series of sheets, each of which gives all necessary details concerning rock formation, stream deposits, etc. Automobilers making the transcontinental journey this season will find in this Government publication the best existing maps of the region traversed by the Union Pacific Railroad. As only a limited printing appropriation is made, it was found impossible to print an adequate free edition of this guidebook, and so the work will be sold by the Superintendent of Documents at Washington at one dollar a copy.

The San Francisco publishers, Paul Elder & Co., have brought out a series of books especially designed to answer the questions of tourists who are this summer visiting the Pacific Coast, possibly for the first time. One of the most serviceable of these is a compact guidebook entitled "Nature and Science on the Pacific Coast."² This book, which is appropriately dedicated to John Muir, "Man of Science and of Letters," has been edited under the auspices of the Pacific Coast Committee of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. It discusses, from the scientist's standpoint, such topics as geology of the West-coast region, weather conditions on the Pacific Coast, mines and mining, petroleum resources and industries, vertebrate fauna of the Pacific Coast, flora, forests, deserts, astronomical observatories, mountaineering, and scenic excursions. Dr. David Starr Jordan contributes a chapter on the fishes of the coast, and each chapter of the book is the work of a specialist in the particular subject treated. Any intelligent traveler may make his visit to the coast far more profitable if accompanied by this convenient and attractive handbook.

An attractively illustrated book, "San Francisco as It Was, as It is, and How to See It,"³ by

Helen Throop Purdy, is full of suggestions for the visitor to the Western metropolis. This volume gives a full description of the new San Francisco that has been built up since the great fire of 1906. An account of the city's restaurants and "the elegant art of dining," as practised by Californians, is contained in "Bohemian San Francisco,"⁴ by Clarence E. Edwards.

One of the achievements of the year in artistic bookmaking is a volume entitled "The Art of the Exposition,"⁵ by Eugen Neuhaus, of the University of California. In this work Mr. Neuhaus gives an interpretation of the architecture, sculpture, mural decorations, and color scheme of the Panama Pacific Exposition. Visitors have been powerfully impressed by the art features of this Exposition, and many who have not a technical knowledge of the various arts represented, will be greatly aided in their study of the work as a whole by the comments of Professor Neuhaus, who is himself a painter and is chairman of the Western Advisory Board of the Exposition's Department of Fine Arts.

In earlier numbers of this REVIEW we have mentioned several books treating of the old California Missions. None of these, however, can be said to duplicate in any manner Mr. Paul Elder's "Old Spanish Missions of California,"⁶ an historical and descriptive sketch illustrated chiefly from photographs by Western artists. No claim is made to original research in the preparation of this volume, but full credit is given to the contemporary and current writings that have been drawn upon. Some of the extracts from letters and journals of the Franciscan Friars are extremely interesting, and the selections from modern works are appropriate and useful to an understanding of the subject.

"The Field Book of Western Wild Flowers,"⁷ by Margaret Armstrong, is the first attempt to give, in a popular manual, descriptions of most of the commoner flowers growing in the United States west of the Rocky Mountains. Many Easterners fail to understand, perhaps, that this field includes within its limits all kinds of climate and soil "producing thousands of flowers infinite in variety and wonderful in beauty, their environment often as different as that of Heine's "Pine and Palm." The author states that exceedingly few of the Western flowers cross the Rocky Mountains and become denizens of the East. This field book was prepared in collaboration with Professor J. J. Thornber, of the University of Arizona. It contains 500 illustrations in black and white, and 48 plates in color drawn from nature by the author.

¹ Guidebook of the Western United States: Part B, the Overland Route. By Willis T. Lee, Ralph W. Stone, Hoyt S. Gale and others. Washington: Superintendent of Documents. 244 pp., ill. \$1.

² Nature and Science on the Pacific Coast. A Guidebook for Scientific Travelers in the West. Edited under the auspices of the Pacific Coast Committees of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. 302 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ San Francisco as It Was, as It is, and How to See It. By Helen Throop Purdy. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. 221 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁴ Bohemian San Francisco. By Clarence E. Edwards. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. 138 pp. \$1.25.

⁵ The Art of the Exposition. By Eugen Neuhaus. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. 89 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁶ The Old Spanish Missions of California: An Historical and Descriptive Sketch. By Paul Elder. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. 89 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁷ Field Book of Western Wild Flowers. By Margaret Armstrong in collaboration with J. J. Thornber. Putnam's. 596 pp., ill. \$2.

OUT-OF-DOOR BOOKS



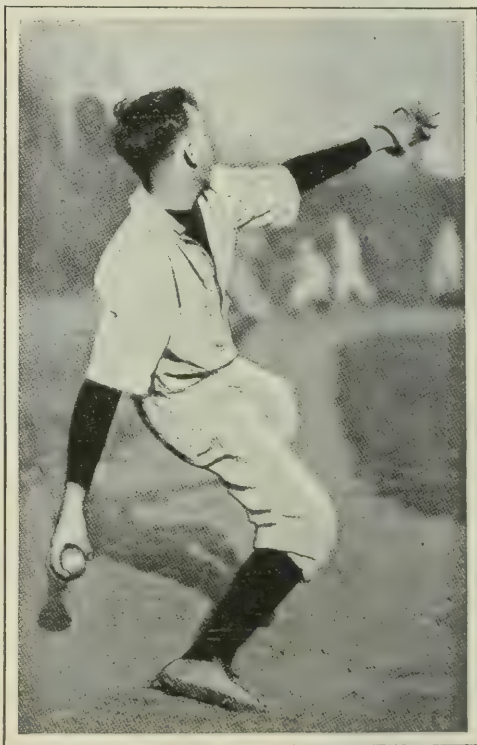
R. N. WILLIAMS, NATIONAL CHAMPION, SERVING
(From "Modern Tennis")

THAT tennis-players are not "mollycoddles" is shown by the fact that many of the famous racquet-wielders of England, France, and Germany are fighting with their countries' forces at the front. One of the finest and most popular players,—Anthony F. Wilding, of Australia, who played in the Davis cup match in this country last year,—fell at the Dardanelles in a recent engagement with the Turks. Tennis, indeed, is a game which is not only clean and fascinating, but develops intense activity, alertness, and endurance. Its popularity in this country is deservedly on the increase. Veterans of the sport, as well as its fresh hosts of adherents, will be interested in the new edition of the standard work entitled "Modern Tennis,"¹ by P. A. Vaile, an expert who has played and observed the game on every continent. The volume goes into all branches of the game, from the laying out of the court and the grip of the racquet,—with chap-

ters devoted to descriptions of the various strokes,—to regulations for managing tournaments, and a section on technical decisions. Photographic illustrations and drawings of well-known players like McLoughlin, Williams, Pell, Bundy, Brooks, Wilding, and others accompany the text.

In "Tennis as I Play It,"² Maurice E. McLoughlin, called the world's greatest tennis player and one of the most attractive personalities on the American courts, tells, in the simple unaffected manner of the man himself, just how he does it. R. Norris Williams, the national champion, supplies an appreciative introduction and there are many photographic illustrations. The book is additionally notable in that it is a work by a young present-day champion, who is at the same time the greatest exponent of the dashing and speedy American style of play.

The average American boy gets his baseball lore right on the field, whether his "diamond" is in a back lot, the schoolgrounds, or the city street, with the neighbors' windows in annoying proximity. He gets the practical side of the game and has a good time, too; but here is a volume on "Baseball,—Individual Play and Team Play in Detail,"³ that gives the principles of the game,—



PITCHING A STRAIGHT OVERHAND DELIVERY
(From "Baseball")

² Tennis as I Play It. By Maurice E. McLoughlin. Doran. 347 pp. \$2.

³ Baseball. By W. J. Clarke and Frederick T. Dawson. Scribner. 195 pp. \$1.

¹ Modern Tennis. By P. A. Vaile. Funk & Wagnalls. 301 pp., ill. \$2.

real scientific baseball, such as the big teams play. This is "inside" baseball, the technical, professional article, which will prove especially valuable for the aspirant for the "Varsity" team. Chapters are devoted to all the different positions on the nine, as well as to batting, team plays, base-running, strategy, coaching hints, and what to do in certain contingencies, with a lot of good advice and suggestions that, properly observed, mean real headwork and game-winning. The authors are both college coaches,—W. J. Clarke, of Princeton, and Frederick T. Dawson, of Union. An ample supply of illustrations and diagrams elucidate the text. We must not overlook the "Hints for Spectators," explaining the fine points of the game, nor the sage advice to college players,—“Think baseball after you have prepared your *other* lessons!”

"Letters From Brother Bill, 'Varsity Sub,"¹ is a chatty little book in which a college football player tells his younger high school brother all the points of the game as he learns them at college. Kicks, tackles, scrimmages, and strategy,—in fact, all the hundred odd things that go to make good football playing, are explained in the simple and chatty fashion of one boy's letters to another. Interesting experiences with the college team, and a story-like continuity help to make the letters attractive. Diagrams and photographic illustrations accompany the text.

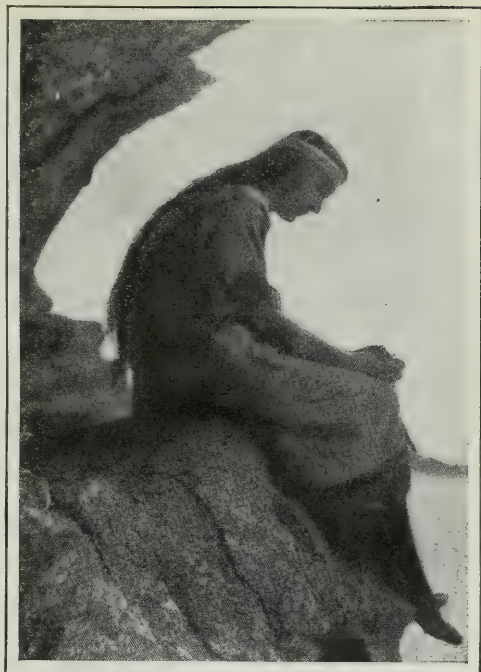


HOW THE BALL IS HELD IN PITCHING THE "OUT-DROP"

(From *Baseball*)

"Pro and Con of Golf,"² a charming little volume by Alexander H. Revell, gathers up a most useful fund of golf advice and suggestions for improving one's game. This serious side of the book is delightfully balanced by a multitude of entertaining golf anecdotes, personal reminiscences, stories, and philosophic reflections, with many snappy pen and ink sketches scattered throughout.

There are, of course, many excellent golf players among women. At the same time the majority of women labor at some disadvantages compared with men in achieving complete success on the links. Mr. George Duncan, in "Golf for Women,"³ explains the principles which have proved in his experience to be most useful in playing golf under modern conditions, adapting them particularly for the guidance of the woman golfer. The author has made a special study of



A CAMP-FIRE GIRL

the game from the woman's point of view, and his suggestions should accordingly prove profitable to women who are ambitious to improve their play and better their scores.

"Sebago-Wohelo: Camp Fire Girls,"⁴ by Ethel Rogers, with portraits and introduction by Mrs. Luther Halsey Gulick, tells the story of their life in camp on Sebago Lake in Maine. The Camp Fire Girls are increasing; there are many camps now in the States, and even one in Alaska. Work, Health, and Love are the watchwords, and the name of the mother-camp, "Wohelo," is a combination made from the first two letters of those words. You will learn from this book how the girls swim, dive, hike, row, paddle, cook, and become skilled in various handicrafts. Beyond gaining objective knowledge, they develop those crowning graces of womanhood, self-control, independence, the capacity for unselfish service to one another, and a great friendship for all the manifold works of Nature. The book is delightfully written, well printed, and illustrated with decorations and photographs.

Young Americans of both sexes are more and more taking to the wholesome outdoor life of camp and trail in the summer time. There is, however, as all true campers know, a great deal to be learned in order to enjoy camp life thoroughly and avoid its possible dangers. Three books which supply the necessary information for both these purposes are, "On the Trail,"⁵ by Lina Beard and Adelia B. Beard, an outdoor

¹ Letters From Brother Bill, 'Varsity Sub. By Walter Kellogg Towers. Crowell. 141 pp. 50 cents.

² Pro and Con of Golf. By Alexander H. Revell. Rand, McNally. 276 pp. \$1.25.

³ Golf for Women. By George Duncan. Pott. 173 pp. \$1.

⁴ Sebago-Wohelo: Camp Fire Girls. By Ethel Rogers. Good Health Publishing Co., Battle Creek, Mich. 249 pp. \$1.25.

⁵ On the Trail. By Lina Beard and Adelia B. Beard. Scribners. 271 pp. \$1.25.

book for girls; "The Boys' Outdoor Vacation Book,"¹ by A. Hyatt Verrill, and "Camp Craft,—Modern Practice and Equipment,"² by Warren H. Miller. The first named volume is dedicated to girls and is, therefore, especially useful to them, but all three books are full of information about every possible phase of life in the open. Here the boy or girl,—or grown-up, too,—who has never camped, will learn about outfits, provisions, camp sites, cookery, and so on, as well as what to do in various emergencies. The fascinating craft of the woodsman and the delights of the trail are thoroughly gone into by experienced campers. No "tenderfoot" who contemplates a camping expedition for the first time should neglect to read a book of this kind.

Dallas Lore Sharp's "The Whole Year Round"³ combines the author's separate volumes on spring, summer, autumn, and winter, in which the wild

life of each season is sketched in the author's characteristic style, and containing many passages of "nature writing" which are readable at any time of the year.

Herbert K. Job's "Propagation of Wild Birds"⁴ has a distinctly practical bent. Although this may be regarded as a new subject in America, the enactment of the Federal Migratory Bird Bill two years ago, along with other manifestations of interest in birds, seems to justify the publication of a book detailing the methods of successful game-breeders throughout the country. Mr. Job has had many years of practical experience in the hand-raising of upland game birds and water-fowl. The book is illustrated from photographs, most of which were made by the author himself. The owner of even a small place in the country may get suggestions from this book as to the best means of keeping birds about the home.

PHILOSOPHY: EDUCATION

THE professional as well as the unprofessional reading public will welcome Professor John Dewey's exposition of the development of classic German philosophy⁵ from Kant to Hegel. It is a most lucid and well-reasoned survey of the philosophical principles that have by saturation motivated the development of the German nation. Professor Dewey writes that while pure reason may not in the end affect evolution, and may be a phenomenon utterly apart from the forces that exact the obedience of the universe to an unsolved Will, a great outpouring of ideas, like a physical catastrophe, an earthquake or an avalanche, has results that for a time may prove a blessing or a curse in the locality where it occurs. The zenith of Germany's creative thought, her heroic age, lies within the confines of the immediate past. In that near past we must look for the philosophy that has made possible the magnificent achievements of the Germanic peoples; and we must turn not to Nietzsche, but to Kant, with his conception of two sharply divided worlds in which man functions,—the world of science and sense, set in space and time, and the world of moral freedom which exists in the Absolute. Following this conception one quickly understands how the Germanic civilization of the past fifty years has projected itself enormously with super-human energy along parallel channels of science and so-called *Kultur*.

Wherein this dual development may succeed and wherein it is doomed to failure, is outlined in a series of trenchant chapters that discuss the moral and political philosophy of Kant, Luther, Fichte, Heine, and Hegel, and include a brilliant survey of the philosophy of history. Professor Dewey writes: "The contrast of the German at-

titude with that of Edmund Burke is instructive. Burke had the German hostility towards cutting loose from the past, but not for the reason that the past is an embodiment of transcendental reason, but that its institutions are an inheritance bequeathed us by the collected wisdom of our forefathers." The contrast is carried further in a most logical fashion. Of America he writes that it is still so obviously a country of the future that a pragmatic philosophy must continue to guide us to our real opportunity. As regards international peace, we must first discover before we play the rôle of peacemaker if we are willing to forego our principle of national sovereignty and submit ourselves to an international judicial tribunal.

"Play in Education,"⁶ a most useful book by Joseph Lee, brings all our ideas for the education of children to a focus upon the Greek idea of education by the use of various rhythms. Play and work are generally considered to be in opposition to each other; they both mean, broadly speaking, the same thing. A boy's play becomes the man's work. Froebel and Stevenson, Mr. Lee writes, have seen this truth. If work is a "consciously directed activity by which one makes good as a member of society," and play "action in fulfillment of a play instinct," it will readily be seen that both end in a deed, in the fulfillment of a purpose, therefore that later must be the training for the former, and the child's hunger for reality must be utilized to prepare for the drudgery of the world, which is an invention of mankind, from which other creatures are exempt. The chapters discuss play as growth; its relations; the different ages of childhood and their needs; the dramatic age; the "Big Injun" age, the mood of play; growth from within; the age of loyalty; the apprentice age; play the compensation for civilization; and play the restorer.

The educational theories set forth in Mr. Lee's book, together with many others, find a concrete

¹ The Boys' Outdoor Vacation Book. By A. Hyatt Verrill. Dodd, Mead. 321 pp. \$1.25.

² Camp Craft. By Warren H. Miller. Scribners. 232 pp. \$1.50.

³ The Whole Year Round. By Dallas Lore Sharp. Houghton Mifflin. 135 pp., ill. \$2.

⁴ The Propagation of Wild Birds. By Herbert K. Job. Doubleday, Page. 276 pp., ill. \$2.

⁵ German Philosophy and Politics. By John Dewey. Holt. 132 pp. \$1.25.

⁶ Play In Education. By Joseph Lee. Macmillan. 500 pp. \$1.50.

embodiment in the experiments described by Professor Dewey and his daughter in "Schools of To-Morrow."¹ Professor Dewey, in common with many educationists, has long held theories of his own regarding the elementary schooling of children. It is not, however, for the purpose of reviewing or defending these theories that the present volume has been written. Professor Dewey's purpose in this book is to show "what actually happens when schools start out to put into practise, each in its own way," some of these theories. Educational "experiment stations" from Gary, Ind., to Fairhope, Ala., were personally visited, and what was learned in these visits has developed into a book. These schools of to-day give inspiration for the teachers of to-morrow.

The Quest Series, edited by G. R. S. Mead, aims at placing before the layman a set of introductions to the work of various mystics and occultists "simply and clearly written by experts, which shall embody the latest results of the study of comparative religion, philosophy, and science, as working together to broaden and deepen our conception of life."

The latest volume in this series is an account of the life, works, and doctrine of John Ruysbroeck, the great fourteenth century contemplative, perhaps the greatest of all the medieval Catholic mystics. Miss Evelyn Underhill has given her literary talent and her knowledge of mysticism to the preparation of this volume. It will not fail to delight all who are interested in the spiritual adventures of mankind. Ruysbroeck was a Flemish priest. For many years he lived in Brussels and ministered industriously to the needs of his flock. In this life of constant watchfulness and discipline, he gained the spiritual equilibrium that enabled him in retirement, during the later years of his life, to give spiritual

counsel that has outlived the centuries and write the pages of his memorable books. There was no highest heaven that Ruysbroeck² could not penetrate by means of faith. Yet swinging around the whole circle of the hidden life of the soul, Ruysbroeck could reconcile all he perceived with the sacramental life of the Catholic Church. He taught that our religious life could not be demonstrated by other than the intensity of the "soul's power to become the son of God." He was born in 1293. Eleven authentic books and tracts are preserved in various MS. collections. Miss Underhill regards the ninth and tenth chapters of "The Book of the Sparkling Stone," "How we may become the Sons of God and live the contemplative life," and "How we, though one with God, must eternally remain other than Him," as the most soaring flights in mystical literature.

"The Scientific Method in Philosophy"³ contains the eight Lowell Lectures delivered by Bertrand Russell at Boston in April, 1914. While the author admits that he has included much that is tentative and incomplete, he has attempted to show the nature, capacity, and limitations of the logical-analytic method in philosophy, taking as his central problem the relation between the "crude data of sense and the space, time, and matter of mathematical physics." One of the most vital of Mr. Russell's discussions he terms, "On the Notion of Cause, with Applications to the Free-Will Problem." Here he contends against Bergson's grounds for the unassailability of the will. His conclusions plead for a school of scientific philosophy that will consider the simplest, most naive of our reflections, and the most complex of our postulates, only as they emerge pure gold from the irrefragable test of fact and the logical method.

WAR-TIME AVIATION

THAT new and dramatic arm of the war service,—the flying corps,—has been exceedingly active in the present war, and the various commanders have repeatedly testified to its enormous value. Air-scouting has, in fact, become indispensable in warfare, and has had marked effect on military tactics. The generals in the field to-day, commanding the clear, quick information secured by their air-scouts, have no cause to echo Napoleon's complaint about the conflicting reports of a multitude of spies and foot-scouts. A new volume on "Aircraft and the Great War,"⁴ by Claude Grahame-White, the English aviator now at the front, and Harry Harper,—who have both collaborated on previous aeronautical books,—goes with some degree of thoroughness into this fascinating branch of war service. The book is a "Record and Study" of the work of the flying men in the

war. Full, detailed accounts of the war aviators' work are not as yet available, and official reports have been but meager; but a great deal of information has been gleaned from various available sources and embodied in the present volume. There are descriptions of various types of machines in use, and of the actual work of reconnaissance, range-finding for gun batteries, and the dropping of bombs and "flechettes," or steel arrows, with accounts of some of the especially notable air raids like those of the Allies' airmen on Düsseldorf, Cologne, and Friedrichshaven, including some dramatic duels in the air. The strategy and the peril of aerial scouting and warfare are duly set forth, as well as some of the methods employed to nullify and defeat the air-scout's efforts. Graphic reports of thrilling episodes and personal experiences give an intimate insight into the airman's daily work. The volume successfully conveys the impression of the heroism and efficiency of the air-scout and his great importance in modern military activities. While the book is by English authors, and its material mostly from English sources, such accounts of notable German aerial feats in the war as were available have not been neglected.

¹ Schools of To-Morrow. By John Dewey and Evelyn Dewey. Dutton. 316 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² Ruysbroeck. By Evelyn Underhill. G. Bell & Sons, London. 193 pp.

³ Scientific Method in Philosophy. By Bertrand Russell. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. 245 pp. \$2.

⁴ Aircraft and the Great War. By Claude Grahame-White and Harry Harper. McClurg. 346 pp., ill. \$2.

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Books Relating to the War

The Diplomacy of the War of 1914. By Ellery C. Stowell. Houghton Mifflin. 728 pp. \$5.

In this volume Professor Stowell analyzes the various official documents which contain accounts of the negotiations that ushered in the war. This book is not merely a volume of transitory interest, like so many war publications, but has a permanent and distinctive value of its own.

The Elements of the Great War. By Hilaire Belloc. Hearst's International Library Company. 377 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This is a terse and graphic statement of the conditions, causes, and tendencies which working together through a term of years resulted in the outbreak of the European conflict. In this first volume of the series to be devoted to a history of the war the terminal date is September 5, 1914.

The Second Phase of the Great War: A London Graphic Extra. By A. Hilliard Attridge. Doran. 218 pp., ill. \$2.

A republication of the "extras" issued from time to time by the *London Graphic* for the purpose of narrating and illustrating the progress of the war, this volume contains numerous illustrations in color, in black and white, and eighteen maps.

The Note-Book of an Attaché. By Eric Fisher Wood. Century. 345 pp., ill. \$1.60.

This book gives the experiences in the war zone of one of the attachés of the American Embassy in Paris under Ambassador Herrick. Mr. Wood made four different trips to the front during the months of September, October, and November, 1914, and saw parts of the battles of the Marne and the Aisne, and the struggle for Calais. During December and January he served as bearer of special despatches between the American embassies, and saw British, Belgian, and German troops in action. The book is illustrated from photographs taken by the author.

India and the War. By Lord Sydenham. Doran. 77 pp., ill. \$1.

This account of India's part in the great war is prefaced by an essay on British rule in India from the pen of Lord Sydenham. There are numerous illustrations in color which show the uniforms and equipment of the Indian troops.

Peace and War in Europe. By Gilbert Slater. Dutton. 122 pp. \$1.

This work discusses from an English viewpoint such topics as "The Economic Causes of War," "Religion and War," "Nationalism and Imperialism," "Armaments," "The Terms of Peace," "The Future Maintenance of Peace," and "The Need for an International Court of Honor."

A German-American's Confession of Faith. By Kuno Francke. Huebsch. 72 pp. 50 cents.

A frank, clear statement by an eminent German-

American leader of the duties of German-Americans both toward their native land and their adopted country.

Armies and Navies

The American Army. By William Harding Carter. Bobbs-Merrill. 294 pp. \$1.50.

General Carter discusses in this book the military policy of the United States, the lessons to be derived from our history, and various problems of army administration. General Carter is especially qualified to write on these subjects by his studies and researches, undertaken in the line of duty while putting in operation the general staff law under which our army is now administered.

The American Navy. By French E. Chadwick. Doubleday, Page. 234 pp. 60 cents.

Admiral Chadwick's plea for a strong navy is confined to the brief concluding chapter of this little volume. The rest of the book is taken up with history of the navy, including many interesting facts from colonial and revolutionary records which the Admiral has discovered in the course of his researches.

Fleets of the World, 1915. Lippincott. 197 pp., ill. \$2.50.

This is an English compilation of the world's naval statistics, including a list of the ships lost by the powers now at war from August 5, 1914, to April 15, 1915. There are over 100 full-page photographic illustrations of battleships, cruisers, and submarines.

Naval Occasions. By "Bartimeus." Houghton, Mifflin. 295 pp. \$1.25.

Brilliant, picturesque sketches of life in the British Navy. The author is a naval officer who has seen service in all parts of the world. If you want to learn what a navy means to the men in service, read this book. The *London Morning Post* calls it the best of its kind that has appeared since Kipling's "Fleet in Being."

Science and Invention

A-B-C of Electricity. By William H. Meadowcroft. Harpers. 127 pp., ill. 50 cents.

A new edition of a popular compendium, containing fresh material required to bring the treatment up to date.

Gas, Gasoline, and Oil Engines. By Gardner D. Hiscox. New York: The Norman W. Henley Publishing Company. 640 pp., ill. \$2.50.

The twenty-first edition of a book that has been in constant use throughout the marvelous development of the internal-combustion engine and has been edited to keep pace with that development.

Motor-Cycle Principles and the Light Car. By Roger B. Whitman. Appletons. 281 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Because of the small space available and the

necessity of light weight, certain parts of motorcycles and light cars, like the Ford, differ from the corresponding parts of the standard automobile. Mr. Whitman explains the construction and operation of those parts.

Mathematics. By C. A. Laisant. Doubleday, Page. 156 pp., ill. 50 cents.

Mechanics. By C. E. Guillaume. Doubleday, Page. 199 pp., ill. 50 cents.

Astronomy. By Camille Flammarion. Doubleday, Page. 192 pp., ill. 50 cents.

A brief, interesting treatment, admirably fitted to meet the needs of adults who for one reason or another have never mastered the elementary principles of the various sciences.

Sea, Land, and Air Strategy. By Sir George Aston. Little, Brown. 308 pp. \$3.50.

A book written before the outbreak of the great war, but containing several chapters that have a direct application in the current news from the four fronts.

Natural Law in Science and Philosophy. By Emile Boutroux. Macmillan. 218 pp. \$1.75.

Lectures delivered at the Sorbonne and translated into English by Fred Rothwell.

Experiments. By Philip E. Edelman. Minneapolis, Minn.: Philip E. Edelman. 256 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Stammering and Cognate Defects of Speech. 2 Vols. By C. S. Bluemel. New York: G. E. Stechert & Company. 756 pp. \$5.

A scientific explanation of the facts connected with stammering. The second volume reviews and criticizes the systems of treatment now employed in America and Europe.

Essentials of Agriculture. By Henry Jackson Waters. Ginn. 455 pp., ill. \$1.25.

A bright, attractive book covering the whole range of American farming interests and treating every topic from the view-point of the new agriculture. Nowhere else can one find such a wealth of up-to-date farm-lore in such small compass.

Heredity and Environment in the Development of Men. By Edwin Grant Conklin. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 533 pp., ill. \$2.

Available discussion by the Professor of Biology at Princeton.

Submarine Engineering of To-Day. By Charles W. Domville-Fife. Lippincott. 324 pp., ill. \$1.50.

An illustrated description of the methods by which sunken ships are raised, docks built, rocks blasted, and tunnels excavated beneath the surface of the water. There is also a description of the latest types of submarine boats.

Memorabilia Mathematica, or The Philomath's Quotation-Book. By Robert Edouard Moritz. Macmillan. 410 pp. \$3.

A remarkable collection of exact quotations re-

lating to mathematics and mathematicians, many of the latter being peculiarly entertaining.

The Gardenette, or City Backyard Gardening by the Sandwich System. By Benjamin F. Albaugh. Cincinnati, Ohio: Stewart & Kidd Company. 138 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Practical directions for the growing of both vegetables and flowers under urban limitations.

Principles of Eugenics. By Blanche Eames. Moffat, Yard. 91 pp. 75 cents.

A brief popular summary, with references to the standard authorities on the subject.

Loss of Hair. Authorized Translation from the German of Dr. Franz Nagelschmidt. By Richard W. Müller. New York: William R. Jenkins Company. 171 pp., ill. \$1.50.

An account of the treatment for baldness by the quartz-light rays as first employed in Germany and later introduced in this country by Dr. Müller, the translator of this work.

Ancient Hunters and Their Modern Representatives. By W. J. Sollas. 591 pp., ill. Macmillan. \$4.50.

An instructive summary of all that is known to archæologists and anthropologists concerning the hunting customs of men from the dawn of history to present day. Recent discoveries are drawn upon for a great part of the information.

The Law of Biogenesis. By J. Howard Moore. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Company. 123 pp. 50 cents.

A partial application of biological principles and methods in the domain of sociology.

Hygiene and Medicine

Psychology and Parenthood. By H. Addington Bruce. Dodd, Mead. 293 pp. \$1.25.

Lessons for parents embodying the latest discoveries in child nature. The author is inclined to emphasize the importance of environment in distinction from hereditary influences.

Painless Childbirth. By Marguerite Tracy and Mary Boyd Stokes. 316 pp., ill. \$1.50.

A book by the two women who first popularized in America a knowledge of the so-called "twilight sleep" and other methods adopted for the removal of pain in childbirth.

Twilight Sleep. By Henry Smith Williams. Harpers. 123 pp. 75 cents.

A brief account of the new discoveries which are making possible painless childbirth, with a detailed explanation of the Freiburg method.

The Nutrition of a Household. By Edwin Tenney Brewster and Lilian Brewster. Houghton Mifflin. 208 pp. \$1.

A book of fresh suggestions for adopting foods to every-day human needs, which should result in better-nourished bodies at lower cost.

What the Mother of a Deaf Child Ought to Know. By John Dutton Wright. Stokes. 107 pp. 75 cents.

An experienced teacher of the deaf gives simple tests by which deafness may be detected in a child at a very early age. In cases where treatment offers no hope of success, he shows how the mother can help in starting the child's education in lip-reading and speaking.

Bodily Changes in Pain, Hunger, Fear, and Rage. By Walter B. Cannon. Appletons. 311 pp., ill. \$2.

The results of researches conducted by the author and others at the Harvard Physiological Laboratory.

The Tuberculosis Nurse: Her Function and Her Qualifications. By Ellen N. La Motte. 292 pp. \$1.50.

A handbook for workers in the tuberculosis campaign, prepared by a graduate of Johns Hopkins Hospital who formerly served as nurse-in-chief of the Baltimore Health Department's tuberculosis division.

Consumption: What It Is and What to Do About It. By John B. Hawes, 2n. Small, Maynard. 107 pp., ill. 50 cents.

A manual of hints and helps for the benefit of the patient and the patient's family.

A Surgeon's Philosophy. By Robert T. Morris. Doubleday, Page. 581 pp. \$2.

The running comment of a busy doctor on the maelstrom of life. Keen, shrewd observations, human sympathy and helpful knowledge shaped into a single volume suited to our every-day needs. The sixth chapter shows the all-important relation health has to certain phases of happiness.

Doctors Versus Folks. By Robert T. Morris. Doubleday, Page. 365 pp. \$2.

A book of common sense, a clearing-away of medical mysteries and a frank discussion of the causes of misunderstandings between doctors and their patients. The Abuse of Surgery, Diagnosis, Hypnotism, Neurasthenia, Vaccination, and Medicine To-morrow, are among the chapter headings.

Microbes and Men. By Robert T. Morris. Doubleday, Page. 539 pp. \$2.

An explanation of the microbe theory of life with an exposition of good and bad microbes, and their offices. One of the best books offered for the person who wishes to understand how the various toxins of the body affect our mental, moral, and spiritual welfare. Stimulating and healthful reading.

The Meaning of Dreams. By Isador H. Coriat. Little, Brown. 194 pp. \$1.

A discussion of the problem of dreams, their mechanism, meaning, types, and their relation to our nerve reflexes.

Sleep and Sleeplessness. By H. Addington Bruce. Little, Brown. 219 pp. \$1.

A book that will give hope to the most chronic

insomniac. All the exploited theories and recent experimental studies of this mysterious state of consciousness are included, together with other interesting matters.

Rational Athletics for Boys. By Frederick J. Reilly. D. C. Heath. 125 pp. 90 cents.

Mr. Reilly, the principal of Public School No. 33 in the Bronx Borough, New York City, has worked out a plan for athletics for boys in elementary schools that offers a rational, thoroughly tested system that should lead to at least 80 per cent. of the boys in a school taking part in the interscholastic games instead of the usual 16 per cent. This system does not exalt the few and neglect the many. The deep-breathing exercises have shown marvelous results. Excellent corrective exercises are introduced and the whole plan tends to harmonious physical development rather than to intensive specialization in athletics. The system can be easily adapted to high schools, colleges, boys' clubs, Boy Scout organizations, summer camps, etc.

Worry and Nervousness. By William S. Sadler, M. D. McClurg. 535 pp., ill. \$1.50.

A series of plain talks to patients about the cure and prevention of worry and nervousness. The author takes the ground that "nerves" are the underlying cause of a multitude of our diseases, and offers practical suggestions for self-mastery. Simple remedial agents, the substitution or study cure, the writing or elimination cure, play, mental discipline, social service, and faith and prayer cures are given with minute details for their practise. This book is one of the wisest and sanest treatises on nerve trouble offered to the public, for it inspires the patient to heal himself.

Biography

Alfred the Great. By Beatrice A. Lees. Putnam. 493 pp., ill. \$2.50.

This volume contains all the pertinent results of recent investigation in the somewhat obscure period of English history embracing the reign of King Alfred. Most of these results have already been published in one form or another, but have not been brought together in a single volume. No figure in English history prior to the Norman Conquest stands out so distinctly as that of King Alfred.

The Life of His Majesty, Albert, King of the Belgians. By John de Courcy MacDonnell. Stokes. 190 pp., ill. \$1.

A brief sketch of the popular Belgian king by a resident of Brussels, with an introduction by Commandant Maton, Military Attaché of the Belgian Legation at London.

Life of General Joffre. By Alexander Kahn. Stokes. 114 pp. 50 cents.

A modest sketch of the career of the French coöper's son, who rose to be commander-in-chief in the greatest war in which his country had ever taken part,—a man to whom the accustomed arts and channels of publicity and self-advertisement are evidently as foreign as they were to our own General Grant at the outbreak of the Civil War.

Ulysses S. Grant. By Franklin Spencer Edmonds. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Company. 376 pp. \$1.25.

A well-written and serviceable life of the great soldier and president in the series of "American Crisis Biographies." The frontispiece portrait of the volume is from a photograph made in the month of the Appomattox campaign.

Heroes of Peace. By F. J. Gould. Harpers. 117 pp., ill. 75 cents.

A series of stories calculated to stimulate interest in mechanical and industrial triumphs "with the definite object of directing the minds of readers toward the ideal of peace on earth and good will among men." It does this by showing how these peaceful conquests may be quite as picturesque and far more ennobling and beneficial to the race than the victories of war.

Victors of Peace. By F. J. Gould. Harpers. 114 pp., ill. 75 cents.

A companion volume to the above in the set entitled "Brave Citizens" gives further illustrations and anecdotes of heroism in the service of mankind.

Nathan Hale. By Jean Christie Root. Macmillan. 160 pp., ill. 50 cents.

A readable memoir of the patriotic Yale graduate who was captured and executed as a spy by the British army occupying New York City during the Revolution.

Sketches of Great Painters. By Edwin Watts Chubb. Cincinnati: Stewart & Kidd Company. 263 pp., ill. \$2.

This volume is both biographical and critical, yet the author makes no claims to be regarded as either a professional art critic or a painter with a theory of art. The book ranges through various periods and schools, from Raphael, Da Vinci, and Michelangelo to Millet, Whistler, Corot, and Rosa Bonheur. A perusal of Mr. Chubb's pages will put the reader in touch with many interesting facts about the various painters represented.

Spencer Fullerton Baird. A Biography. By William H. Dall. Lippincott. 462 pp., ill. \$3.50.

A complete and authentic biography of the organizer of the United States Fish Commission and head of the Smithsonian Institution. Professor Baird was not only himself a great naturalist, but during his lifetime he was in close relations with such men as Louis Agassiz and Audubon. Much of Professor Baird's correspondence with scientists and public men is included in the present volume.

Twenty Years of My Life. By Douglas Sladen. Dutton. 365 pp., ill. \$3.50.

A volume of personal reminiscences by the author of the English "Who's Who" (we use the word author advisedly, for it seems from Mr. Sladen's statement of the case that he was the originator of the idea of such a publication).

Current Fiction

The Forest of Swords. By Joseph Altsheler. D. Appleton. 317 pp., ill. \$1.30.

A new adventure story of the present war which follows the fortunes of the leading characters in a previous novel by the same author—"The Guns of Europe." The advance of the German Army on Paris, the occupation of the country, the great Battle of the Marne, and the turning back of the Germans are retold, interwoven with the romance of John Scott, an American hero.

The Scarlet Plague. By Jack London. Macmillan. 181 pp., ill. \$1.

A typical Jack London story that pictures the sudden depopulation of the earth by a terrible plague which turns the bodies of its victims scarlet. A few individuals are left and these gather on the Pacific Coast and begin life over again under primitive conditions, with the great task of recivilizing the world lying unrealized before them. One of the survivors,—a college professor,—stores books and scientific secrets in a cave, in hope that they may some time assist in rearing again the beauty and wonder of civilization.

The Competitive Nephew. By Montague Glass. Doubleday, Page. 350 pp. \$1.20.

The creator of Abe Potash and Mawruss Perlmutter needs no introduction to the American public. This new collection of stories of Jewish garment manufacturers and wholesalers, represents the best of Mr. Glass's work for the past two years. His characters combine shrewdness, industry, conservatism, tight-fistedness, generosity, tenderness, fidelity, and rich humor in a way that opens our understanding to a just valuation of certain Jewish types that, before the creation of Potash and Perlmutter, escaped our interest and appreciation.

Maradick at Forty. By Hugh Walpole. Doran. 427 pp. \$1.25.

The Gods and Mr. Perrin. By Hugh Walpole. Doran. 318 pp. \$1.25.

The Prelude to the Adventure. By Hugh Walpole. Doran. 308 pp. \$1.25.

The Wooden Horse. By Hugh Walpole. Doran. 316 pp. \$1.25.

A group of constructive novels that possess artistic symmetry and power. In his descriptive passages, in keen analysis of character and the power to project his puppets instantly into the sympathies of the reader, Mr. Walpole is unrivaled among modern novelists. Arnold Bennett writes that in his work there is apparent the "hand of the born and consecrated novelist."

The Awakening. By Henry Bordeaux. Dutton. 438 pp. \$1.35.

An unusual novel of French family life, remarkable for its delineation of character. Translated from the 95th French edition by Ruth Helen Davis.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—PUBLIC-UTILITY SECURITIES

AN existing condition of credit will affect all securities of an interest-bearing character alike, though it may make its impression in different degree. Government, State and municipal bonds, the highest types of investment, will reflect high or low money rates, just as will industrial issues at the lower end of the investment scale. The one may move, however, a fraction of a point and the other many points.

Generations of investors had found in railroad bonds the strongest symbols of safety and the distribution of such securities among private individuals, estates, and institutions in this country and Europe had absorbed over \$10,000,000,000 par value of them. One of the strongest arguments presented to the Interstate Commerce Commission last year in behalf of higher freight rates on the Eastern roads was that the investment of savings banks in railroad bonds, amounting to over a billion dollars, was being jeopardized by the steady decline in railroad credit due to unprofitable tariffs. Bonds that a decade ago were carried in inventories at a large premium over par were being marked down to par and even then were not within five points of going prices. To-day the average value of a list of fifty railroad bonds to be found in the schedules of our strongest institutions is twenty points under the best average of the past ten years and the return is just one per cent. on the average higher than it was formerly.

At the end of 1914 nearly 10 per cent. of the funded debt of American railroads was under the jurisdiction of the courts, though not this amount was in default. Naturally investors who had confined their risks of capital to this one class of bonds became disturbed and then skeptical and are now probably more alarmed over their investments than they need to be, for the majority of railroad bonds previously well-recommended are as sound as ever and show a most satisfactory margin of safety. It is true, however, that there has been a great deal of shifting in the past five years from old issues to new and in this process the competition between the bonds of railroads and those of public utilities has steadily become keener.

ELECTRIC RAILWAY, LIGHT, AND POWER COMPANIES

The magnitude of the public-utility field is scarcely appreciated by the average investor. In street and electric railways alone the gross capitalization is above \$5,000,000,000. In electric light and power companies it is over \$2,000,000,000. This is about 40 per cent. of the investment in railroad securities. Between 1907 and 1912 the gross earnings of the traction lines increased 36 per cent., while the dividends paid on stocks of light and power companies grew from \$19,000,000 to \$34,500,000,—over 70 per cent. From 1902 to 1912 there was an annual average increase of 25 per cent. in the revenues of power-generating stations in this country. A compilation made by the *Financial World* shows that in the depressed year of 1914 the gross earnings of 275 public-utilities companies were nearly \$900,000,000, which was about 5 per cent. in excess of 1913 and a gain of \$96,000,000, or 12 per cent. over 1912. For the calendar year 1914 American railroads had a gross loss of \$220,000,000, or 6¾ per cent.

EFFECT OF INVENTIONS AND NEW METHODS

Public-utility bonds and stocks cannot be purchased with closed eyes any more than can the securities of railroads or manufacturing concerns. The processes of elimination and discrimination have to be employed, for there are many worthless propositions in the traction, electric-light, power, and telephone fields. Every business that represents a new idea in developing efficiency in trade or advancing the standards of home life or in giving better transportation facilities is surrounded with the danger of free competition and rapid change of methods involving the capital invested. An authority on the subject recently said: "Electric light and power, gas, electric railway and telephone utilities in the United States to-day are no more completed than is the development of our country." Methods and inventions to reduce costs change so quickly that machinery that seems to be giving the highest of service to-day becomes obsolete to-morrow. A prominent utility concern

that is preparing to build a gas plant in a Middle Western city has revised its plans three times within two years to conform to the latest engineering devices.

THE "JITNEY" AS A COMPETITOR

A year ago very little was heard concerning the "jitney," but now it is a virile competitor of the street railway from Massachusetts to California and its inroads on traction earnings have been so great that a number of companies have gone into receivers' hands and a score more have been forced to reduce or pass their dividends. Restrictions in the way of licenses and conformity to laws governing franchised corporations will undoubtedly diminish the degree of competition. The over-night appearance of the "jitney," however, and its popularity is cited to illustrate a phase of public-utility investments that cannot be disregarded. In the hydro-electric field there have also been revolutionary changes, though these have resulted in reducing costs of production after some additional capital expenditure had been made.

LOCAL CONDITIONS AND PROSPECTS

What is true of every other investment holds good with public utilities. Suppose "A" holds the bond of a corporation dealing entirely in transportation. The "jitney" cuts into its earnings to the extent of \$3000 a day. It cannot balance this loss with increased production of other service and defaults. "B," on the other hand, holds the bond of a concern that not only provides its community with transportation, but furnishes it with electricity to light its streets and homes and electric power to propel its machines. The revenues from the power it manufactures will carry the interest load while the depression in transportation service exists. Assume that another concern devoted itself exclusively to production of power from a hydro-electric plant and served a community catering to one branch of trade. The products of that trade for some reason or other are in poor favor, plants go on half time or close altogether, and the generating capacity of the power company soon shows a ratio of three to one of demand. In this case again there is temporary embarrassment, with the possibility of a funding of coupons for a period of several years until industry revives.

ADVANTAGEOUS FEATURES

The buyer of a public-utility bond, therefore, ought to inform himself not only of the local conditions affecting his investment, but the diversity of resources by which earning power is sustained and stabilized.

Having satisfied himself in these respects he will be in possession of a security that on the average yields one-half per cent. more in income than a railroad bond of equal quality, which annually earns its interest charges two to two-and-a-half times over and has a feature of great strength, which practically no railroad bonds possess, viz., the sinking-fund provision. The scope of this varies widely. Some companies set aside one to one-and-one-half per cent. of gross earnings to retire bonds, others as much as 5 per cent., and still others an arbitrary sum, as a small percentage of the total outstanding bonds. The majority of public-utility bonds are further protected by the franchises which outlive the mortgage by many years.

At the end of the fiscal year 1914 banks in the United States held among their investments \$584,000,000 of public-utility securities. In Rhode Island public utilities, under certain restrictions, are legal for savings-banks.

One of the present advantages of public-utility bonds over railroad bonds is the absence of heavy foreign liquidation. The recent report of the Loree committee indicated an European ownership of American railroad bonds and notes of approximately \$1,800,000,000. Since this compilation was made as of March 31 there have been liquidated probably \$250,000,000 bonds, but the amount remaining is large. Public utilities have been placed extensively in England, Scotland, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, and Germany. There are two-score issues listed on the London Stock Exchange. The total amount of both stocks and preferred stock sold abroad, however, is not over \$300,000,000, and quite a number of bonds are in sterling form. Some few have been coming back since the last British loan at 4½ per cent. caused Englishmen to sell their foreign securities to reinvest in the highest yielding bond their government has offered in several generations. Selling by Europe does not, however, constitute a very serious objection to immediate purchase of the highest type of utilities.

II.—INVESTMENT QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 654. SUGGESTIONS ABOUT "JITNEY" COMPE- TITION AND PUBLIC UTILITY SECURITIES

What do you think about the effect of "jitney" busses on street-railway securities? I am the owner of a few utility bonds of this class, and am very much in doubt whether to sell them or hold them.

No broad, general statement can fairly be made in regard to the effect of the advent of the so-called "jitney bus" on the securities of street-railway companies. In some localities the effect has been distinctly adverse, especially as far as the position of the stocks of the railway companies is concerned; while in other localities the effect has been practically negligible.

As the jitney movement has spread, the attitude of municipal authorities everywhere has tended more and more toward the strict regulation of this new form of public transportation, and we are strongly inclined to believe that when the various new problems which the movement has presented are clearly understood, and when a fair basis of regulation is worked out, the rights of the traction companies will be recognized, and equitable competition will be established, if the jitney is to remain at all as a permanent institution, as it seems likely to in many places.

One of the possibilities of the situation which some authorities on transportation questions expect to see realized, in the event that the jitney survives the experimental stage, is the establishment of the zone system of fares for the street railways. Thus, the Bureau of Fare Research of the American Electric Railway Association, in pointing to the short-haul competition as perhaps the principal thing suggesting this possibility, makes this comment:

"It is obvious that, to the extent that the street railways are deprived of the traffic that costs less than 5 cents per passenger to handle, they cannot continue to carry passengers for 5 cents where the cost is more than 5 cents.

"In so far as rush-hour traffic is concerned, it is frequently found that the extra cars put into service for one or two hours per day are operated at a loss. If the development of jitney service would serve to reduce the concentration of traffic during rush hours, and thus permit the use of plant and equipment more efficiently, and each unit more hours per day, it would be a contribution of some economic value to the solution of the transportation problem.

"There seems little probability of this, however, because rush-hour traffic is not short-haul traffic, and because, with the jitney, as with the electric railway, concentration of service into a few hours is expensive.

"The jitney bus can compete in the matter of the cost of operation only under very special conditions with the electric railway, and it should be borne in mind that each passenger now riding two miles in an electric car contributes something toward the cost of carrying the passenger who rides ten miles. If the jitney bus, then, is permitted to compete with electric lines for the short-haul business, it is obviously but a step toward the zone system of fares."

No. 655. AMERICAN LIGHT AND TRACTION

Will you kindly tell me something about the American Light & Traction Company, suggesting what you think of the common stock as an investment. I should like to know what it earns, and something about its general character. A friend of mine owns some, and I have

noted recently that the stock is quoted in the market at considerably less than I believe he paid. I have been a constant reader of your views with a great deal of interest.

The securities of the American Light & Traction Company are sometimes referred to as representing the "aristocracy" of the utilities, although it is rather difficult to analyze their exact position, on account of the fact that there are no statistics available in sufficiently detailed form to show the results of operation of the various constituent companies that go to make up the American Light & Traction Company, which, as you may know, is a holding corporation. On the basis of the records of the parent company, however, it is apparent that there is a large equity and a large earning power back of the stock in question.

For example, the earnings statements of the American Light & Traction Company in 1910 and 1911 showed the equivalent of more than 27 per cent. earned on the common stock in each year, and in the years 1912, 1913 and 1914, indicated earnings on the common stock were each year in excess of 25 per cent.

Dividends were begun on the common stock in 1904, when 1½ per cent. was paid. The record since that time shows

3½ per cent. in 1905.	6½ per cent. in 1908.
4½ per cent. in 1906.	9 per cent. in 1909.
5½ per cent. in 1907.	9½ per cent. in 1910.
10 per cent. in 1911 and since.	

In addition to these cash dividends, as indicated, 12½ per cent. was paid in stock in 1909, and 10 per cent. in stock in 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913 and 1914.

No. 656. THE MEANING OF A "VOTING TRUST"

I recently purchased a few shares of California Petroleum common as a speculation, and received what is called a "trust certificate" from the company's voting trustees and depository. I do not thoroughly understand the meaning of this certificate, and should like to have you explain it. I particularly wish to know whether it will be possible for me to sell the certificate, should I desire to do so.

The language of the certificate you have received means that the control of the company in question is temporarily taken away from the stockholders and placed in the hands of trustees. Your certificate, in other words, is in effect a receipt for an equivalent amount of actual stock. It may be negotiated, and may even receive dividends, the same as the stock itself, its important characteristic being that it does not have voting power.

Stated in another way, the trustees of a voting trust have all the rights and powers of absolute owners of the stock, including as your certificate says, "the right to vote . . . for every purpose and to consent to any corporate act of said corporation."

The device of the voting trust, therefore, represents the monarchical form of government in corporation finance, and is not nowadays resorted to, except in unusual circumstances. Broadly speaking, its purpose is to conserve the interests of the owners of the corporation by insuring continuity in the policies of management during the time that frequently intervenes in the cases of some corporations, before their business is established on a permanent and stable basis.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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TERMS:—Issued monthly, 25 cents a number, \$3.00 a year in advance in the United States, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Cuba, Canada, Mexico, and the Philippines. Elsewhere, \$4.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second class matter under Act of Congress, March 3, 1879. Entered as Second Class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English REVIEW OF REVIEWS, which is edited and published in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 30 Irving Place, New York

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



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POLISH FAMILIES FLEEING BEFORE THE GERMAN ADVANCE

(Scenes like this seem far removed from the thoughts and the soil of American people; yet, if our military experts are correct, it would be not all at all impossible for a foreign power, by seizing a narrow strip of our Atlantic seaboard, including in its area our arms and munitions manufacturing, to hold the entire country at its mercy. Eastern residents might very possibly then re-enact these now familiar European refugee scenes, migrating Westward for safety.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LII

NEW YORK, SEPTEMBER, 1915

No. 3

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*"Defense"
a Present
Need*

It is now the general opinion that the foremost question before Congress when it meets in the first week of December will be that of the preparation of the United States for defense against the rising tide of militarism that threatens to destroy the most sacred rights of nations and individuals. The question has many phases. There are excellent Americans, men and women, who think of it almost wholly from the standpoint of ultimate aims and ideals, and whose discussion is along lines of ethical principle. There are others,—also of the generalizing trend of mind,—who think in terms of broad practical policy and of legal formulas, and are bent upon the construction of world institutions to provide defense for all nations alike. There are others of a more concrete and direct way of thinking and acting. They try to look at things exactly as they are, and to be ready for emergencies that might arise suddenly. They think of what might confront us many years before international justice could be guaranteed by means of a strong world organization centered at The Hague. They ask for insurance against onslaughts that might take place long before the sway of ethical ideals could be relied upon to protect the weaker against the stronger.

*World Har-
mony Our
Aim and End*

This magazine has no altered views to express upon any phase of these questions of war, peace, national aims, and public duty. It has discussed them often during the past twenty-five years, and its editorial doctrines have not changed at any time as regards the mission, duty, and policy of the United States. This periodical, in its editorial views and in its contributors' pages, has cared as much for the fine ideals of peace and world progress and harmony as Jane Addams, or Mrs. Villard, or Andrew Carnegie, or David Starr Jordan. It has, with certain modifications of their ultra-legalem, approved the arbitra-

tion programs of men like Mr. Taft and Mr. Knox. It has believed, in spite of current ridicule and criticism, that there was great moral and even practical value in the peace treaties of Mr. Bryan. It has believed preëminently in the right adjustment of unsettled questions as a path to peace, and has therefore regarded the policies of Elihu Root as Secretary of State, under the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt, as the most sagacious and the most beneficent in all our recent history.

*The Duty
to Be
Efficient*

On the other hand, we have never been convinced by the arguments of Mr. Carnegie, and of foreign friends like the Baron D'Estournelles de Constant, that the United States had no need of any army or any navy, or any kind of preparation for defense, because of its economic and geographical conditions and its international relationships. We have always believed that the United States should have a thoroughly adequate navy; and we have argued that any failure to maintain the fleet on a high scale of strength and efficiency would result in calamity. It is our mission to bear a proper share of responsibility for the guardianship and the evolution of various nations besides our own, in a struggling and painful epoch. A refusal to be efficient and vigorous implies a distrust of our own character and motives. This entire nation, by a sentiment overwhelmingly strong, is for honorable, righteous, and permanent peace. Its motives are not to be doubted. Our own right to live quietly in our homes is too valuable and too sacred to be trifled with by leaving it uninsured.

*Citizenship
and
Training*

The people of Switzerland, who are quite as pacific as we are, do not doubt their own motives or malign their own characters and ideals. They know that they have a right to live in peace, though in the midst of a troubled

world; and so they put machine-guns and heavy artillery in every pass, and train every boy to defend his mother and sisters in the enjoyment of their prized blessings of domestic and social quiet and order. This magazine, therefore, agrees fully with Gen. Leonard Wood and all those who represent the idea that American security and American influence for good in the world would be greatly enhanced if every American man and boy were so trained that he could do his full and well-rounded duty as a citizen in any emergency. This is no new doctrine on our part. For many years we have been of the opinion that education in the United States was to a great extent a failure in its results and tendencies. We have made education a public affair and a public charge, without making it properly serve public ends.

*Where
Education
Fails*

All over the country, at ever-increasing cost, we are constructing splendid buildings for the service of primary and higher instruction of all the children and young men and women. We are training teachers from the scholastic standpoint, and are trying to make the schools serve in a better way the individual preparation for industry, commerce, and agriculture. But we are almost wholly failing to utilize the educational system for the specific training of citizens in their various duties as such. The consequence is that the standards and methods of our political and organized life are lower than those of our private life. There is perfect consistency between the ideals of those who glorify peace, and the aims of those who would train every American boy to be ready to help maintain peace in any time of emergency or danger. We are not getting anything like the social and public values that we ought to be reaping from our investment in schools and education. Scholarship is not popular in our universities and colleges. Athletic life furnishes no proper outlet, because it is vicarious and quasi-professional. A few young gladiators monopolize the athletic activity of our institutions, and the vast majority are taught to look on and yell for the maintenance of college or school spirit.

*How to
Wake Up Our
Students*

Thus our great institutions, though more and more costly in their appointments and maintenance, are painfully aware that they are not producing the results that ought to be manifest. Many of their students,—a possible majority,—cannot write a well-phrased or

correctly spelled letter. They do not know the Bible, or Shakespeare, or Charles Dickens. They are not capable of reading the editorial page of a good newspaper. This criticism does not apply to all, but to what in at least a good many large institutions must include fully half of the undergraduates. It would be unjust to locate blame in any specific quarter. The faults lie deep in our current life, and are widespread. There are great resources of worth and of power latent in those very youths who do not find themselves absorbed in the study of textbooks, or held to discipline by the sternness of the football coach. But there is a gospel of social and public duty, accompanied by certain practical applications, that might be used to bring out the earnestness and personal worth of thousands of these young men. They should be strongly impressed with the gravity of the issues of this momentous time in which we live. Without much if any additional burden to the taxpayers, every one of these students of high schools, normal schools, colleges, and universities could be so taught and trained as to be well prepared to exercise many of the usual, and some of the unusual, duties of citizenship. Such training would benefit students in their health and morals, would give them a finer sense of private as well as of public duty, and would furnish them with various kinds of practical experience and knowledge that would redound to the welfare of our political and governmental life.

*Proper
Conditions of
Voting*

After a reasonable interval of time, no young man should be admitted to the privilege of voting until his fitness had been passed upon by a competent committee. He should have some mental and ethical training in the duties and obligations of citizenship, and should accept not merely the established principle of liability to military duty, but also the obligation to be prepared to serve efficiently. The kind of training we have in mind would be valuable from every standpoint. It would not merely fit a boy to be a soldier or a junior officer in a company or a regiment of citizens called to arms, but it would fit him to exercise the power and discretion of a policeman or to show the courage and skill of a fireman. It would make him understand the duties of a sanitary inspector. It would not only teach him how trenches are made in time of war, but it would teach him how good roads are constructed and maintained in time of peace. It would al-

low him to specialize, and to learn many necessary modern things regarding inventions and the practical use of machinery. There are a great many boys who cannot learn mathematics, physics, and chemistry by way of theory or the use of textbooks. But beginning with the practical machine as a concrete thing in its construction and its use, they can be led to a very earnest study of mathematics, physics, and other branches of science.



SOME AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS IN A SUMMER CAMP, WITH GENERAL WOOD (SECOND FROM RIGHT) LENDING ENCOURAGEMENT

Duty and Incentive The great thing that our boys and young men need is, first, to have their earnestness aroused by being made to see and feel the use of the thing they are set to do, and second, to be given much to do, under proper incentives. It is not militarism that we advocate, but common sense and public duty. Militarism means the preparation and intention to use force against the rights of other people. Preparedness, of the kind we advocate, means the

ability to protect and maintain rights as against militarism and aggression. We have spoken heretofore with commendation of the movement for training students in military duty under the auspices of the United States Army. The student camps of the present summer have been notably successful. We have so few trained soldiers in proportion to the greatness of our population and the vastness of our national interests, that there is imperative need of the immediate training of a great many intelligent young men who could be of service in case of the need of raising a volunteer army. This emergency work is one thing, and a very necessary matter. Its gradual merging into that more universal and general training which we advocate is, of course, a somewhat different thing.



OLD CHINA, DRIVEN BY JAPAN. ALLUDING TO YOUNG CHINA, REMARKS: "I DIDN'T RAISE MY BOY TO BE A SOLDIER."

(Mr. Rogers, the cartoonist of the New York Herald, intends us to see in China's condition of unpreparedness for self-defense something similar to our own situation)

A Series of Military Schools

We have much more to build upon in the training of intelligent young men to serve as soldiers, or even as officers, than most people are aware. With a sufficient awakening of interest, and definiteness of purpose, we could provide military education on a very great scale at almost no additional expense. Throughout the United States we have a series of State colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, known as the Land Grant colleges because created in 1862 under the Morrill Act. They have obtained additional gifts from the nation, and are now receiving, besides their original endowment, \$50,000 a year for each State. There are now fifty-two such institutions, besides sixteen separate ones in the South for negro students. One of the conditions of the grant in 1862, and still maintained in the laws, is the require-

ment of military instruction. Congress may at any time give more definiteness and vitality than has heretofore existed to this particular branch of required instruction.

*How to
Vitalize the
System*

Every year, then, Congress is appropriating at least two and a half million dollars for the support of these institutions. There are probably more than 30,000 young men in any given year, enjoying the benefits of education in such schools, largely at the national expense. The new and up-to-date kind of military training that the War Department and leaders like General Wood are working out could be given in these institutions without any interference with the other kinds of study in which the young men are engaged. It could be so associated with their physical and mental training as to be of positive benefit to them, while adding greatly to the defensive resources of the country. We have the opportunity,—since the law requires military instruction in these schools,—to give the subject the importance that our present needs as a nation render appropriate. Besides these publicly supported institutions we have thousands of students in schools which are avowedly of a military character, so far as their discipline goes and much of their instruction. A conspicuous type is the Virginia Military Institute. We referred last month to the Culver Institute in Indiana and the training of high-school boys under its auspices. Men like President Hibben of Princeton, and

many other educational leaders, are now encouraging military training among college students.

*A Citizens'
Training
Camp*

An account of the citizens' training camp at Plattsburg, N. Y., appears elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW. Some 1200 men, remarkable for intelligence and character, have been giving a month for intense technical military instruction, because they believe that in so doing they are setting a good example, and fulfilling a duty to the country that they love. Anybody who would criticize either the spirit or the method of this movement should face clearly the moral and logical dilemma. Our technical military resources are very small. The citizen who would oppose the enlargement of those resources, by the voluntary effort and self-sacrifice of the kind of men who went to Plattsburg last month, cannot maintain the slightest pretext to consistency unless he goes so far as to advocate the disbanding of the United States Army. He must favor the dismantling of our fortifications and coast defenses, and oppose the appropriation of a single dollar for the further maintenance of the military establishment. When we have any army at all, we admit the principle that war may come and that the profession of arms is necessary in our generation. If war should come, we must enormously increase the army, either by volunteer method or by conscription. In either case we must enlist men who



A GROUP OF AMERICAN STUDENTS IN A TYPICAL MILITARY SCHOOL, WHO HAVE NOW AN ESPECIAL DUTY TO TAKE THEIR TRAINING SERIOUSLY. THIS GROUP, FROM THE NEW MEXICO MILITARY SCHOOL, STANDS FIRST IN COMPETITIVE MARKSMANSHIP



THIS SNAPSHOT OF SWISS SCHOOLBOYS SHOWS THEM IN CERTAIN OF THE EXERCISES BELONGING TO THEIR MILITARY TRAINING, AS PART OF THE NATIONAL DEFENSE

are either fit or unfit to serve as soldiers. If they are unfit, we must either spend a long time in training them, or else sacrifice their lives in large and needless proportion.

*The Army
That We
Need*

To maintain an enormous standing army of the old-fashioned kind would be exceedingly expensive, and would produce the incidental evil of militarism. But to make training for military and other forms of public service a part of the necessary education of every boy, would not only entail comparatively little expense, but would so heighten and intensify the efficiency of the average young citizen as to repay the expenditure many times over. As for our regular army, it ought to be reconstituted, at as early a date as possible, upon a greatly improved system; and it ought to be made much larger than it is, without relatively increasing the cost. Every officer, high or low, in the United States Army, should be not merely a strict military disciplinarian, but should have the motive and spirit of a good teacher. Enlistments in the army should be short, and reenlistment should be discouraged and in due time wholly discontinued. The more ignorant and less-developed enlisted men might be kept and trained for two years. The more intelligent ones, already instructed in the public schools, might be enlisted for one year and given very valuable training and experience. Their mental and moral, as well as their physical, discipline should be considered at all times.

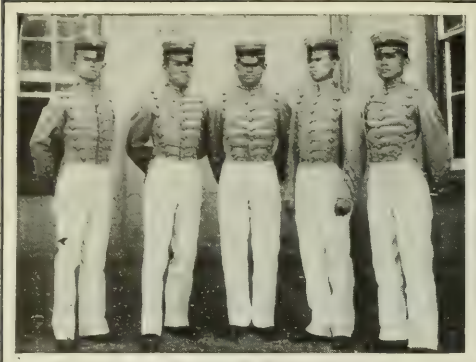
*A Valuable
Service*

Service for a year in the army should be creditable, and should carry with it the presumption of worth, efficiency, and character. Young men serving in the army in this fashion should be taught as much as possible, in as short a time as possible, and then enrolled in a continually growing body of reserves. They should be

stationed and transported with some view to their education and future value as citizens. Even the German and French army systems, with all their objectionable phases, have many advantages in the training and development of millions of young men who go from the comparatively short term of army discipline to the ranks of civil and industrial life. The United States could have an army of 300,000 young men, on the plan of short and intense service and the highest possible training. Our navy is doing much to teach and train the young men who enlist in it,



THESE GERMAN BOYS, BELONGING TO A SOCIETY AKIN TO OUR BOY SCOUTS, ARE BEING TAUGHT FIRST AID TO THE INJURED AS A PART OF THEIR PRELIMINARY INSTRUCTION IN DUTIES AS MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY. ALL AMERICAN BOYS SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN THIS WAY



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FILIPINO STUDENTS AT WEST POINT

(We are now training and graduating at our National Military Academy young men from our insular dependencies. We are teaching boys in the Philippines and Porto Rico many lessons of a practical kind that are not usually given to American boys in our own schools)

and it can do still more of this kind of work in the future. A large navy is an expensive thing, but for the United States it is at the present time a matter of necessity. At least some portion of the expense can be offset by a deliberate purpose to make a brief period of naval service positively valuable for all future life to a very large number of young men. This is Secretary Daniels' aim.

*Improving
the
Navy*

We are presenting in this number (see page 297) a very instructive article by Mr. Waldemar Kaempffert, on the relationship of scientific and mechanical invention to the problems of national defense. Mr. Kaempf-

fert's article is apropos of the much-heralded board, devised by Secretary Daniels, for passing upon inventions that might be of use in the navy, and for the development in laboratory testing and research of plans and methods that require patient experiment in order to bring them to perfection. Here again let the man who cavils or objects face honestly the alternatives. Let us refuse to appropriate a single dollar for naval expenditure, and let us put out of commission and send to the junk dealer all the ships we now possess. This is one logical alternative. On the other hand, if we are to have a navy,—and we are actually maintaining one at an expense of nearly \$150,000,000 a year,—let us refuse to have it inferior through stupidity or through hesitant policies. Let us use the very highest intelligence we can command to make it the most efficient and up-to-date instrument of national defense in the entire world. Let us employ the best inventive genius and the finest administrative talent, and let us have no doubts at all regarding the value of our policy.

*A National
Sea
Policy*

There has never been anything more intellectually pitiable than the state of mind of certain people who have opposed the consistent policy of two new battleships a year, while willing to compromise on one ship,—their motive being that they did not like the navy and did not really want any ships! The navy is an intolerable burden and expense, unless it is a useful and valuable kind of insurance of our



THIS SCENE SHOWS YOUNG ITALIAN BOYS UNDERGOING MILITARY INSTRUCTION IN A MOVEMENT KNOWN AS THE ITALIAN BOY SCOUTS,—WHICH IS, OF COURSE, MORE MARTIAL THAN THE AMERICAN MOVEMENT, ALTHOUGH NOT BETTER FITTED TO TRAIN BOYS FOR CIVIC DUTY



PLANNING TO STUDY AND INVENTORY OUR NATIONAL RESOURCES FOR DEFENSE

(On the left is Mr. Gifford Pinchot and standing is Mr. Thomas R. Shipp, president and secretary of the National Conservation Association. The other gentlemen are, from left to right, Norman C. McLoud, E. L. Worsham, and Dr. Henry S. Drinker. They conferred last month in regard to calling a great conference of scientific, industrial, and other experts for the study of our national resources, with a view to our fitness for self-maintenance and self-defense in time of need. The present position of Russia, France, Germany, and some other countries, illustrates the desirability of our knowing just where we stand in respect to the materials that would be most essential if we were cut off from foreign sources)

national peace and dignity, and unless it is a positive help to us in the maintenance of what we believe to be a beneficent international policy. If we are to have submarines, it is ridiculous for a nation of our great population and vast resources not to invent and build the best possible submarines, in numbers adequate to serve the ends we have in view in building any submarines at all. And the same principle applies to battleships and other members and adjuncts of a suitably balanced modern navy.

minion, our Government took the ground that not only our own English-speaking country,—but also the Spanish-speaking and

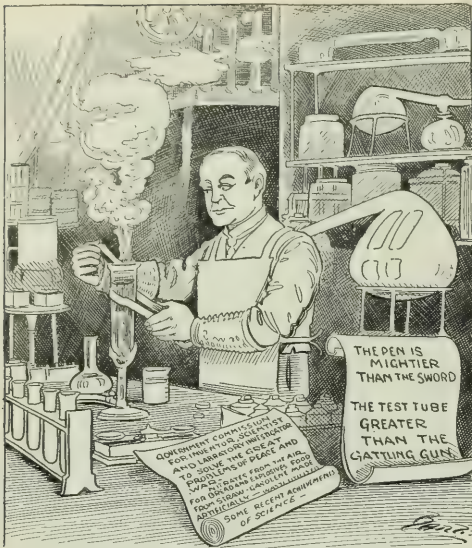
*Why We
Must Be
"On Duty"*

In the international sense the people of the United States do not constitute a restless nation.

For fifty years ours has been the most quiescent, peaceable, and conservative nation in the world, with the exception of some smaller countries like Switzerland. In this modern period world conditions have been changing rapidly, and the elements in all countries that stand for sanity, order, harmony, and progressive civilization, earnestly desire that a country like the United States should be not only well disposed but very strong. When the greater part of Latin America, in the first two decades of the nineteenth century, had broken away from European do-



A BODY OF AMERICAN STUDENTS TAKING INTENSIVE MILITARY TRAINING DURING THE PAST SUMMER



THE MAN IN THE LABORATORY NOWADAYS IS THE GREAT RELIANCE OF THE MAN IN THE FIELD; AND THEREFORE THE GOVERNMENT PROPOSES TO PROVIDE FOR RESEARCH AND THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF INVENTIVE GENIUS

By "Bart," in the St. Paul News

other parts of North and South America,—ought to be allowed to develop their own political conditions under self-government. And so the Monroe Doctrine was announced as a part of a program of peace and order for the Western Hemisphere. It was our duty to do what we could to uphold the position that we announced to the world more than ninety years ago. In a good many instances we have been able to protect our sister republics against European aggression; but if we had been without a navy our views in more than one case would have had no determining influence.

The Case of Cuba

The Cuban struggle for independence that began in 1895 was one of a long series that had kept Cuba in turmoil. Spain had lost the power to administer Cuba in peace and order. The Cuban patriots were too lacking in material resources to expel the Spaniards summarily. Neither side could win quickly, and neither could of its own accord yield to the other. Almost 200,000 young soldiers from Spain were wasting their own strength, and exhausting the resources of the home country in a fruitless effort to subdue the Cuban insurrection. There was misery and chaos, ever increasing, throughout the island. It became the duty of the United States to try to end a situation so near our own coast,

after three years of deadlocked and wasteful struggle. We had allowed both our army and our navy to lag far behind our development in other respects, to the detriment of our rightful influence as a factor in the order of the world. Our Government undertook to persuade Spain to withdraw from Cuba on some terms that the Cubans could accept. But Spain had more than ten times as many soldiers under arms in Cuba as we could send there on short notice. Furthermore, European naval experts supported Spanish opinion in the belief that the navy of Spain was stronger and better than the navy of the United States. We were not regarded as ready for the test of force.

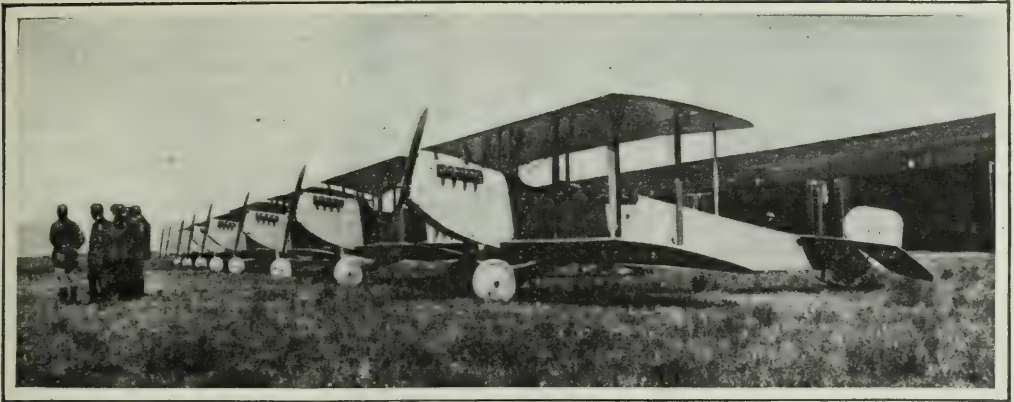
If We Had Owned More Ships!

If the United States had owned even two or three more modern battleships and cruisers, we should never have had the war with Spain. We would have helped the Spaniards to withdraw, and aided in the creation of a Cuban republic, without the firing of a shot. Our position in having as much of a navy as we had, without having enough to prove convincing to Spain, was highly expensive and foolish. It involved us in a war that we should otherwise have escaped. Helping Spain to get out of Cuba when her position there was no longer tenable would have been an act of real service. Helping Cubans, with



UNCLE SAM IS DRUMMING-OUT OLD "GENERAL INEFFICIENCY" AND DEMANDING AN UP-TO-DATE SUBSTITUTE

From the Public Ledger (Philadelphia)



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE FIRST COMPLETE SQUADRON OF UNITED STATES ARMY AEROPLANES

(This new photograph illustrates what has been very rapid progress in the past year. Both Secretary Daniels and Secretary Garrison propose a considerable increase in the aeroplane service as auxiliary to navy and army. The squadron here shown is now in active service in the Southwest)

the good-will of Spain, to set up a republic would also have been an act of fine international character. We could have rendered both of these services, firmly and justly, if we had been adequately prepared. The principle involved is so simple that one wonders why it has to be set forth so often. If it is advisable to have a police force to keep order and to make the streets safe, there is no need of arguing that the police force should be large enough and sufficiently well trained to keep order without having to fight mobs, quell riots, and suffer violence at the hands of criminal gangs.

Other Lessons of Our History

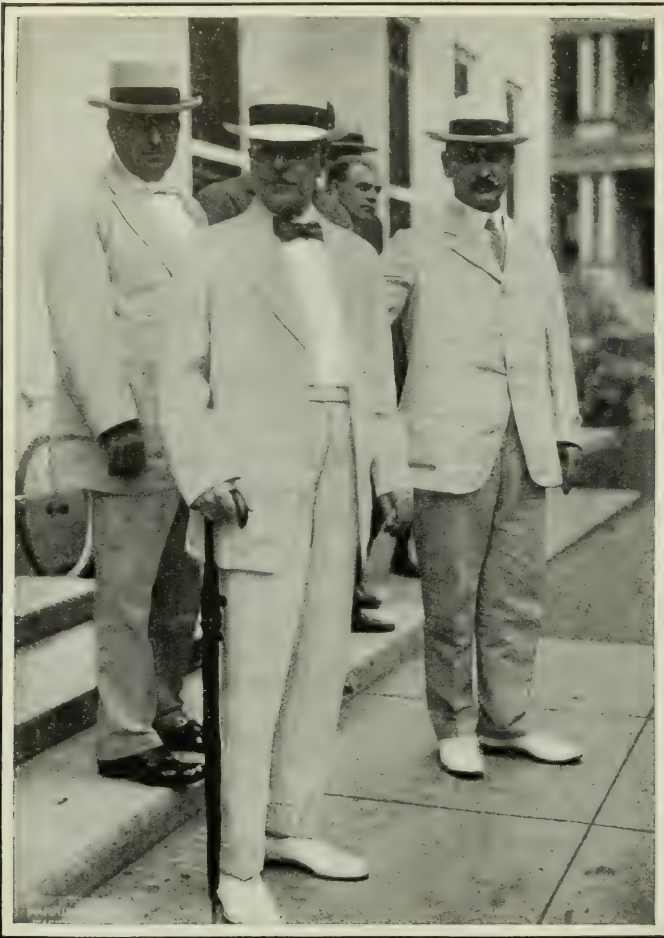
Mr. Roosevelt, as an authority on the War of 1812, has shown that we should probably have avoided that war altogether, and should certainly have escaped its most humiliating incidents, if our army and navy had not been allowed to become so insignificant. We had known for twenty years that we had important rights to maintain and to defend, and that those rights were being violated by England and also by France. We were driven into an unfortunate war with England, after having been on the verge of war with France. At far less expense, and with far greater dignity, we could have escaped war altogether by adopting the policy of being thoroughly prepared from the very start to maintain our rights with insistence and energy. Thus it is plain that lack of preparation does not keep us out of war. On the contrary, nearly all of our wars have been incurred by reason of our lack of preparation.

The Govern- ment and the Ships

Precisely the range and extent of the recommendations that President Wilson will make to Congress, in accordance with plans that are being worked out in the War and Navy departments, are not yet known. But the Administration is not ignoring the subject, and its views have been at least partly expressed. Questions having to do with the size of the navy and the kinds of ships to be built are highly technical. The ordinary citizen is not competent to deal with such matters by the exercise of his independent judgment. But there can be widespread support of the principle that the United States ought in this period to have an ample navy. It will be the part of the experts, the professional students, the Administration, and the members of Congress to decide what is meant by an adequate navy for the purposes of our country. Secretary Daniels has been conferring with the President on this subject, and chairmen of Congressional committees are in touch with the Administration. All reports are to the effect that a steady increase in the larger kind of battleships will be recommended, while the national sentiment in favor of a very large increase in submarines and aeroplanes is recognized by Secretary Daniels.

The Naval Experts at Work

It was understood that Secretary Daniels was about to announce the names of twenty scientists and inventors, who would serve with Thomas A. Edison as members of the new advisory board. The General Board of the Navy, headed by Admiral Dewey, has been



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

A SUMMER PICTURE OF CABINET OFFICERS AT WASHINGTON

(In the center is Secretary Lansing, of the Department of State, whose work has at once commanded general favor and confidence. On the reader's left is Secretary Garrison, whose plans for the expansion of our army and the creation of reserve forces are in accord with the best public opinion. On the other side of Mr. Lansing is Secretary Houston, of the Department of Agriculture, who believes that farm prosperity and wealth must continue to be the largest factor in the nation's financial and general security)

giving the closest attention all summer to our own problems as viewed in the light of Europe's current experience. We may confidently expect that out of the wisdom of this Naval Board, and the study and thought of President Wilson and the Administration, we shall have mature recommendations for naval enlargement that the country will be prepared to support and that Congress must not be allowed to disregard. Navies cannot be improvised, and that of the United States must be expanded, even at the cost of some mistakes that will be due to the rapidity with which methods of offense and defense by water are changing. The most extensive preparations for defense that we can possibly

make will be in harmony with the idea of settling international differences by diplomacy or by arbitration. The right kind of preparation is the very thing that will do most under existing conditions to insure respect for those doctrines of law and order that we have always proclaimed to the world, and must never abandon.

Politics and Policy There is no need of throwing these issues

into the strife and disputation of party politics in view of the fact that a Presidential election occurs next year. It may indeed be true that some public men have a higher degree of energy and capacity in dealing with the practical problems of the army and navy than others. But at the present time there is a very wide consensus of opinion, regardless of party; and the prevailing views are as well expressed by Secretaries Garrison and Daniels as by any other leaders. The thing that is wanted is a national policy, around which thoughtful and far-seeing men of all parties will rally when Congress meets in December or at such earlier date as the President may appoint.

Cabinet officers like Secretaries Lansing, Garrison, Lane, and Houston are known as broad-minded and sagacious citizens and publicists, rather than as party politicians. Officials like Secretaries McAdoo and Redfield, in like manner, are known as men of practical business affairs, rather than as politicians in the party sense. If Mr. Daniels and Mr. Burleson have been better known as aggressive Democrats, it is none the less true that they are patriotic Americans of honesty, conviction, and courage, who would not, in times of stress and peril, assume positions for party motives upon questions involving the nation's welfare and safety. Congress will be ready to support courageous plans; there should be no delay.

What of
Next Year?

If, therefore, the present administration will produce a strong, well-rounded, thoroughly courageous and therefore safe policy of national insurance through preparation for defense, the Republicans in Congress ought not to cavil or object for the mere gaining of points to be used in the campaign next year. It is highly probable that affairs may have taken such a turn that the campaign of 1916 will amount to nothing more than a vote of confidence. Mr. Lincoln had come through some painful years, and had been bitterly assailed from within his own party, as well as from without; yet when 1864 compelled a popular verdict there was nothing to do but support Mr. Lincoln. And the country, with its increasing knowledge of the conditions then existing, has ever since been growingly unanimous in approving the verdict of 1864.

Mexico and
"Watchful
Waiting"

It has been very hard to follow Mr. Wilson's Mexican policy in its incidents and details. Yet



PRESIDENT WILSON AND UNCLE SAM SEEM TO BE MUCH INTERESTED IN THEIR TRAINING, AND PROPOSE TO BE READY FOR EMERGENCIES

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



© International News Service, New York

MAJOR-GENERAL HUGH L. SCOTT ARRIVING AT THE BORDER LAST MONTH, TO CONFER WITH GENERAL VILLA

(General Scott's influence is notably salutary with our neighbors of northern Mexico. He stands at the left of the group. At the right is George C. Carothers, a representative of the State Department)

when the harsh and unsparing critics of that policy attempt to tell us what they would have done in Mr. Wilson's place, it becomes plain that they are much more at variance with one another than with Wilson himself. Some would have solved the problem by recognizing Huerta and backing him up. Others would have done it by recognizing Carranza at an early day, and backing him against Huerta. Others would have made armed intervention in the interest of American and foreign citizens and property. The forty bitterest critics of Wilson's Mexican policy have forty different programs that they declare Wilson should have adopted. And some of the forty have several alternative programs, which they seem to prefer on different days of the week. We must confess not to have liked the Wilson program,—if, indeed, there was any program except "watchful waiting" and an opportunist treatment of details. But it is fair to say that we have not been able to put confidence in the proposals of any of the experts who have had policies of their own.

If Only
We Had a
Chance

The underlying trouble has been that the Mexicans have not trusted us, and have not wanted our help in the reestablishment of civil order and liberty. Apparently it will be a long time before Mexico can be successfully administered as a whole. The northern part of the country would be better off as a separate republic, under close relations with



Photographs by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

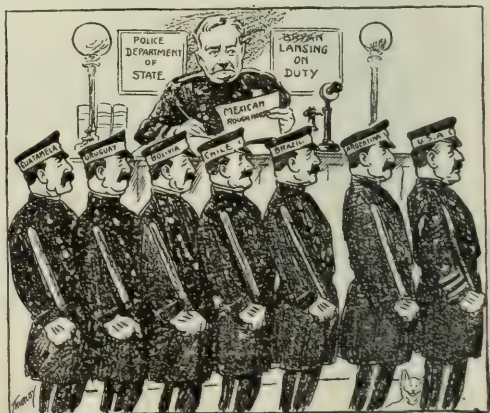
DA GAMA
(Brazil)SUAREZ-MUJICA
(Chile)NAÓN
(Argentina)CALDERON
(Bolivia)DE PIÑA
(Uruguay)MENDEZ
(Guatemala)

THE SIX LATIN-AMERICAN AMBASSADORS AND MINISTERS WHO JOINED SECRETARY LANSING IN THE CONFERENCE ON MEXICO

the United States. Such a republic should have its finances and its civil order guaranteed by a device similar to that of the Platt Amendment under which Cuban stability and prosperity are guaranteed. If northern Mexico were thus constituted a separate republic, the United States could well afford to give it \$50,000,000 for the reconstruction of its railroad system, and \$50,000,000 for the creation of a good school system. In return, we could take over the peninsula of Lower California, which is of no use to Mexico, but which would be valuable to us. And we could purchase a desirable rectification of the frontier by abolishing the Rio Grande as a boundary line and adopting, instead of the shifting river, certain mathematical parallels and meridians on the plan of the lines that separate most of our Western States. This would solve the Imperial Valley problem. We have been putting great skill and zeal into the educational and industrial progress of the remote peoples of the Filipino Archipelago. We have wrought a transformation in the sanitary, political, and general life of the people of Porto Rico. It is a great pity that we cannot have an opportunity to render similar services to our neighbors in the two northern tiers of Mexican states. Our financial investments in those states have been very great, and will in the long run be supported in their rights and claims by public authority. It is deeply to be regretted that the way does not become clear for us to render large services of neighborly good will to the people of a country whose resources, in the material sense, are so certain to be further developed in due time by the capital, knowledge, and energy of men from this side of the boundary.

A Conference
On Mexico

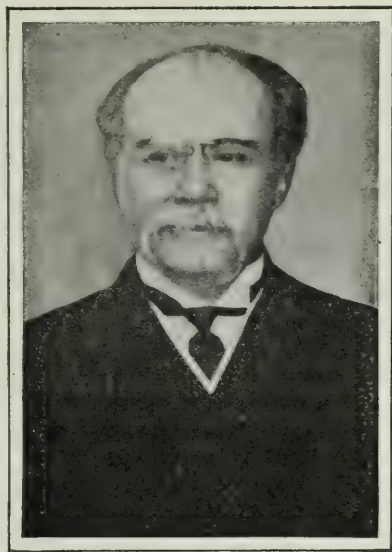
The plan of calling into consultation the Ambassadors of Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, and three other members of the body of Latin-American diplomats at Washington, had much to commend it, although its effects might have been more decisive if the conference had not been so long delayed. Besides the three Ambassadors, the Ministers chosen were those of Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala, whose seniority in the diplomatic corps had especially recommended them. The first session, with Secretary Lansing, was on August 5. An appeal to Mexicans was adopted and signed by Mr. Lansing, Ambassadors Da Gama of Brazil, Suarez-Mujica of Chile, and Naón of Argentina, together with Ministers Calderon of Bolivia, De Piña of Uruguay, and Mendez of Guatemala. The text of an appeal to Mexicans bears date of August 14. It is prefaced by this announce-

LOOKS LIKE A START TO FINISH SOMETHING
From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle)

ment: "The Mexican people are informed that the following communication has been sent to many prominent persons in Mexico who possess authority or military power within the republic." The appeal was a tactful one, rightly claiming to represent the opinions and wishes of the entire continent. Apart from the eloquent language in which this address is clothed as adapted to Latin-American manners and sentiments, the appeal is simply a request that the military and political chiefs of Mexico prepare a truce, come together in a joint conference, establish a provisional government, and call a general election. The conferees offer to aid in the selection of a place for the conference and in the arrangement of details.

What
Next?

The eloquent and sentimental appeal comes down abruptly to this rather blunt and harsh concluding sentence: "The undersigned expect a reply to this communication within a reasonable time, and consider that such a time would be ten days after the communication is delivered, subject to prorogation for cause." This appeal was sent not only to Carranza, Villa, Zapata, and all the fighting chiefs, but to the Governors of Mexican states and anybody else whom it might concern. A good many copies seem to have been sent in blank to the City of Mexico, there to be addressed to persons unknown in Washington, but who might be influential in Mexico. It would seem as if so general an appeal might be less effective



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

MR. VASQUEZ TAGLE, PROMINENT MEXICAN LAWYER

(Mr. Tagle is understood to be the public man best suited, in the opinion of President Wilson, to be chosen as Provisional President of Mexico)

than a more specific and restricted one. The natural question was, both in the United States and elsewhere, what lay behind this pious expression. Apparently it was the plan of our Government to support, for Provisional President Mr. Vasquez Tagle, who was Minister of Justice in Madero's cabinet.

No Solution
In Sight

It further reported that the United States would stop the export of arms and ammunition to factions failing to support the proposed new government. Disquieting conditions led to our ordering battleships to Vera Cruz early in August, which were subsequently recalled by wireless and then ordered by wireless to proceed. General Carranza, who has been making marked gains, is wholly out of sympathy with any interference, and resents the Tagle suggestion, claiming that he himself is the man upon whom to unite. Villa is declared to be ready to adopt the suggestions of the Pan-American conferees. What may happen next can only be surmised, late in August, at the time when these comments are written. There has been great distress in Mexico, but peace conditions exist in a number of Mexican states, which are wholly tired of war and are operating under local jurisdiction on the state's rights plan. There has been created in the State Department at Washington a new Bureau of Mexican Af-



THEIR NATIONAL GAME

CARRANZA: "Beware, Señor; our people will brook no interference when it comes to their sports and pastimes!"

From the *Times-Picayune* (New Orleans)

fairs, constituted of men who have had special training or experience. That our Government has determined to proceed decisively for the protection of American interests and the salvation of Mexico from anarchy, seems to be a growing impression; but extreme caution remains the watchword at Washington. There have been repeated rumors that certain European belligerent influences have to some extent been employed to increase the difficulties that might embroil the United States with Mexico, and so engage and absorb us as to make our resources less available for one or another of the transatlantic powers. But such reports have not seemed worthy of serious notice.

*Chronic
Revolution In
Haiti*

The fact that Mexico is not the only one of our neighbor republics which finds difficulty in keeping its house in order, has been brought forcibly to the attention of the American public during recent weeks. A revolutionary movement in Haiti, quickened rather than retarded by wholesale executions, brought about the downfall of the Government late in July. Before the smoke had cleared away, ex-President Zamor and 160 other political prisoners had been executed by Government officials, while President Guillaume Sam himself and a number of his chief supporters were in turn put to death by the enraged revolutionists. Such a state of affairs is shocking; but it is by no means unusual in the "Black Republic." It has been said that only one President of Haiti ever served out his term,—and he was re-elected, and murdered during the second

term. During the past four years the affairs of the country have been directed, or misdirected, by eight Presidents (see the accompanying chronology). Three of the eight were killed, three others saved themselves by flight, one died an apparently natural death, and the eighth is still in office. The aim of all insurrectionists in Haiti is the control of the customs revenue, a matter of nearly \$5,000,000 annually. More than half of this has to be paid out as interest on the public debt; and last year German, French, and British warships,—acting separately, and on different occasions,—saw that Haiti's financial obligations to Europe were not overlooked. The Haitian "general" in the executive chair controls the expenditure of the remaining \$2,000,000. It is not recorded that any portion of this sum is devoted to the public improvements which the unfortunate republic so much needs.

*Our Navy As
the Caribbean
Policeman*

The United States has long found it desirable to keep a warship in Haitian waters, and the cruiser *Washington* arrived at Port au Prince on the second day of the revolution. While too late to prevent the violation of the French legation by a mob which sought and murdered the President there, American sailors and marines were landed to prevent further bloodshed. Unfortunately, two of their number were killed by "snipers" during the first evening. Rear-Admiral Caperton assumed control of the entire situation, disarmed the people, and brought about the election of a President by the national assembly. The new

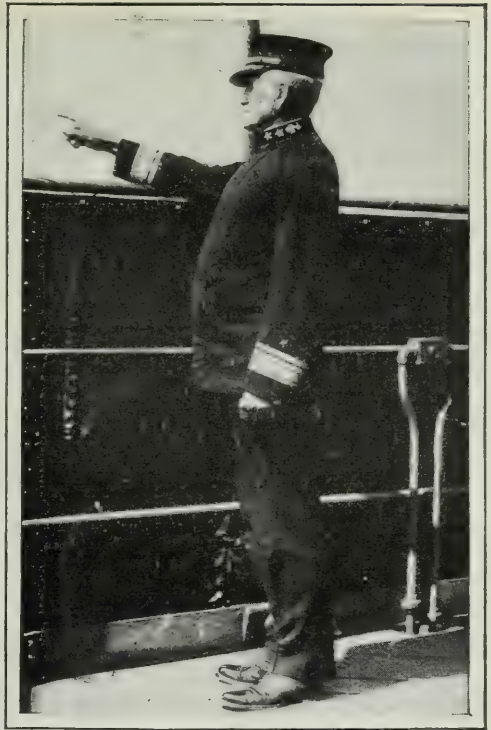
RECENT HAITIAN HISTORY

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1911 August 4—President Antoine F. C. Simon <i>resigns</i> and leaves country.
August 16—Cincinnatus Leconte elected President.</p> <p>1912 August 8—President Leconte <i>killed</i> when National Palace is destroyed by explosion of powder magazine; Gen. Tancrede Auguste chosen President.</p> <p>1913 May 2—President Auguste <i>dies</i>.
May 4—Senator Michel Oreste elected President.</p> <p>1914 January 27—President Oreste <i>resigns</i>; Senator Davilmar Theodore and Orestes Zamor, leaders of separate insurrections, each proclaims himself President.
February 2—Zamor defeats Theodore in battle.</p> | <p>February 8—Orestes Zamor elected President.
November—President Zamor <i>forced into exile</i>, supporters of Theodore having gained ascendancy; Davilmar Theodore assumes Presidency.</p> <p>1915 February 22—President Theodore <i>resigns</i> and leaves country, in face of revolutionary movement under Gen. Vilbrun Guillaume Sam.
March 1—Gen. Vilbrun Guillaume Sam elected President.
July 27—Insurrection under Dr. Rosalvo Bobo gains control of capital; ex-President Zamor and other political prisoners are executed in attempt to put down revolution.
July 28—President Guillaume Sam <i>killed</i> by the revolutionists.
August 12—Senator Sudre Dartigue-nave elected President.</p> |
|---|---|

executive is Sudre Dartiguenave, a former president of the Senate and, of course, a "General." He has publicly expressed his appreciation of American assistance,—the continuance of which, as he realizes probably better than anyone else, is his only guarantee of personal safety. That Dr. Rosalvo Bobo, leader of the recent revolution, will long abide by the result of the election is doubtful. Ordinarily, as the dominant military figure, he would himself have been elected President; and he condemned the electors as "not representing the will of the people." He is opposed to American intervention of any kind. "Between that and the annihilation of our country I would choose annihilation,"—such were his words when leading the recent insurrection against President Guillaume, who, he charged, was about to "accept this fate for us." It is to be hoped that he will modify his views.

Haiti's Opportunity

The Haitian situation has been a thorn in the side of the United States for many years, and particularly during President Wilson's administration. Last year it threatened to bring on a test of the effectiveness of the Monroe Doctrine, for just before the European war began Germany declared that "the interests of European countries in Haiti are so large that no scheme of reorganization or control can be regarded as acceptable unless it is undertaken under international auspices." The outbreak of war caused the matter to be dropped. President Wilson then



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

REAR-ADMIRAL WILLIAM B. CAPERTON, U. S. N.

(Who for a time last month constituted the only recognized authority in Haiti)

sent ex-Governor Fort, of New Jersey, and later Paul Fuller, Jr., of New York, to study the situation on the ground. It has been hoped that some day a Haitian Government might be convinced of the desirability of having the United States either supervise the republic's financial affairs, as is being done for Santo Domingo, or undertake the larger task that was performed so quickly and so well for Haiti's other neighbor, — Cuba. But a definite agreement has never been reached. It is believed that Secretary Lansing favors firm action now; and the energetic, yet tactful, course pursued by Rear Admiral Caperton has inspired such confidence among the Haitian people that the renewed proposals of our State Department may be accepted by those in authority and power.



THE MAP OF THE ISLANDS AND SHORES SURROUNDING THE CARIBBEAN SEA SUGGESTS VARIOUS RECENT AND PROSPECTIVE ACTIVITIES OF UNCLE SAM

*Racial
Considerations*

Whatever is to be done in Haiti should be done for the permanent welfare of the inhabitants. It seems to us that the United States has a clear mission to the people of the Haitian half of the great island, even more than to those of the Dominican half. After the annihilation of the whites,—following the period when Haiti was so rich and productive a European colony,—there remained as population elements a persistent mulatto minority and a very slowly increasing black negro majority. Mulatto government was in due time supplanted by that of the more numerous faction. Life in the country districts has been exceedingly primitive, but perhaps is not hopelessly degraded. Revolutions and plunderings originate in the towns. The first thing to be done for Haiti is to ignore a theoretical position of sovereignty which the people of the little republic are wholly unable to maintain. They are vastly more in need of the application of the Platt Amendment than was Cuba. What they need is to be promptly guaranteed against revolutions, to be protected and helped in the matter of their indebtedness and public finance, and carefully assisted in the building-up of local institutions. They need aid in the matter of education, transportation, agricultural progress, and sanitation.

*How
to Help
the Peasants*

A great deal could be done for Haiti by the scientific methods of some of our large "foundations" that promote education and health, and that have been so firmly established in the confidence of the public as a result of the attempts of Chairman Walsh, of the Industrial Relations Commission, to assail their character and methods. We live in a period when race problems of all kinds are confronting our civilization. The negroes cannot be eliminated: there are too many scores of millions of them. Last month we published an article in this REVIEW by an able and representative Virginian, Mr. Plummer F. Jones, showing sympathetically what the recent Negro Exposition at Richmond had demonstrated of a half-century's progress in education and material things among our ten million American negroes. It is true that the negro republic of Haiti has made a bad record during more than a hundred years. But at least it has somehow continued to exist during that period, and in spite of revolutions there is some kind of social order and economic life as a basis for the future. A good deal might be said from that viewpoint.

*To Upbuild
Haitian
Life*

Why not take what there is in Haiti, and build upon it? We are not belittling the republic of Panama by certain guarantees which constitute a gentle form of protectorate, nor are we doing other than wisely and well for the people of Nicaragua in proposing similar arrangements. We have helped Cuba amazingly, although there is of course always a seamy side to the political and governmental life of a new republic such as the Cubans are carrying on. Mr. Elihu Root, an international statesman who weighs his words, said the other day in his capacity as President of the Constitutional Convention of the State of New York, that government in the Empire State has been about as representative as in Venezuela. If the people of New York have come so far short of making their government efficient, honest and responsive, it would be well not to show too much contempt for the poor negroes of Haiti. Our readers well know that in our opinion the expulsion of Governor Sulzer from office,—apparently for no reason except that he was exposing rogues and scoundrels,—was in view of all the facts a more disgraceful proceeding than any of the recent revolutions in Haiti. It violated the express provisions of the Constitution, and it violated every principle of Anglo-Saxon political right and liberty. Even the Anglo-Saxons, then, have not made a very brilliant success of the business of government. But they have shown a good deal of ability in helping to train wholly non-governing peoples in the rudiments of self-directed social life and order. They have been training and helping Egypt and the Sudan, Porto Rico and the Philippines. They can also help the negroes in Haiti.

*An
Educational
Mission*

It all resolves itself largely into the terms of a new kind of education,—specifically directed towards the fitness of individuals to be members of the economic and political society in which they live. We must adapt our older kinds of education in the United States to the newer and better kinds we have been devising for the welfare of children in the Philippine Islands. If we should send a commission of great experts, headed by President Eliot or Dr. Dillard, or Mr. Wickliffe Rose, to formulate a plan that would regenerate the people of Haiti, there would probably result a kind of educational system that the State of Georgia, for example, could at once take over and apply to its own great system of local negro schools. It might also

apply a similar system to the schools attended by the white children of cotton-mill towns, and those of the upland rural regions.

*Some
Problems
Nearer Home*

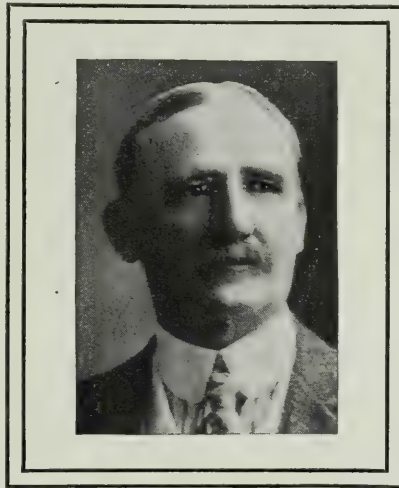
We shall not comment in detail upon the unfortunate and sensational lynching of a prisoner in Georgia last month. The remedy for such things is better civic training. The "poor white" population of a State like Georgia was unduly handicapped by slavery. It was the poor whites, and not the negroes, who were the chief victims of that system. Their education, and their moral and social upbuilding, is the need toward which the unhappy lynching of Leo Frank points most directly. Let it be remembered that lynching is steadily falling off in the South, and that this is to the credit of all social elements and of both races. It reflects the progress of education, and the growth of respect for law and order. New York State, with its great city population, made up largely of immigrants of a poor class, has its own difficult problems of society and government. It can ill afford to be contemptuous towards Georgia or South Carolina, when some failure of government to maintain justice and dignity results in a shameful incident. The only right thing is to go steadily on, with faith in democracy and with a determination to train every child,—training him not merely to get on for himself in the world, but above all to be a law-abiding citizen and a worthy member of the community.

*American
Supervision in
Santo Domingo*

The Dominican Republic shares with Haiti the second largest island in the West Indies. Its people are Spanish-speaking, mainly mulattoes and negroes, though there are many whites,—whereas the Haitians are French-speaking negroes and mulattoes, with no whites. The history of the Dominican Republic has been even more turbulent than that of its neighbor. It was set forth in an article by Mr. Stoddard in this REVIEW for June, 1914. Matters came to a climax ten

years ago, and forced American supervision of customs as an alternative for threatened European intervention. Insurrections have not ceased, to be sure, but they are less frequent and less bloody. Only one President has been assassinated in the ten years, and while three have resigned, it was not necessary for them to seek refuge in flight. In fact, the resignations were invariably the result of compromises arranged by American commissions. Confidence in American good faith and disinterestedness has, however, been severely shaken recently by an unfortunate incident and a regrettable episode.

The incident was the publication of a letter from Secretary of State Bryan to the American Receiver of Customs in the Dominican Republic, soliciting positions "with which to reward deserving Democrats." The episode was the two years' régime of Mr. James M. Sullivan as American Minister to Santo Domingo, brought to an end in July by the acceptance of his much-desired resignation.



© Harris & Ewing

HON. WILLIAM WORTHINGTON RUSSELL
(Minister to Santo Domingo)

*An Experienced
Diplomat
Appointed*

Last month
the State
Department

made known its intention
to reappoint Mr. W. W.

Russell, the very diplomat whom Mr. Sullivan displaced. Mr. Russell had been in the diplomatic service for eighteen years, and, although a Democrat, had been continued in office, and promoted, by three Republican Presidents. With the advent of the present Democratic administration he was retired. Senator-elect Phelan, of California, had investigated for the President certain charges brought against Minister Sullivan; and he not only found evidence of improper relationships, but intimated that Mr. Sullivan was obviously unfit for the office at the time of his appointment. These matters have had their effect, and there are people in the little republic who believe that their country is being exploited by American financiers and contractors. Broadly speaking, however, no one can doubt the advantages of American financial supervision. The results are a great tribute to the wisdom and efficiency of Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, of Johns Hopkins Uni-

versity, who began his reorganization of Dominican finances in 1905. Interest on the \$20,000,000 public debt is paid regularly, and a sinking-fund will in due time wipe out the entire indebtedness. There is enough revenue left over to run the government and to permit the appropriation of half a million dollars annually for public works, such as harbor improvements and road construction.

Latin
Americans
Progressing

Dominicans and Haitians alike may well envy the more fortunate condition of their neighbors in Cuba and Porto Rico, where American influence has had a wider scope. This magazine has frequently found opportunity to call attention to the wonderful transformation wrought in those islands by American medical experts. The course of Cuban affairs during recent years has seemed to justify the belief that the republic is well on its way towards permanent stability and progress. President Menocal has served his people well, justifying the widespread confidence in him at the time of his election, in 1912. It is expected that he will accept a renomination by the Conservatives next year. The chief annoyance in Cuban political matters has been a perennial disagreement over the national budget. In Porto Rico there is a responsible movement,—which has the approval of Governor Yager,—urging the extension of American citizenship and some measure of home rule. The larger affairs of the great and growing continent of South America, during recent weeks, have included the election of Juan Luis San Fuentes as President of Chile, and the inauguration of Dr. José Pardo as President of Peru.

The
Correspondence
With Germany

The series of diplomatic "notes" between the United States and Germany, having to do with the *Lusitania* matter, has resulted in no sort of conclusion. Germany's last note had undertaken to set forth practical ways by which American travelers should be able to go through maritime war zones without incurring much risk. The reply of our Government, dated July 21, rejects Germany's proposals and continues to discuss legal principles rather than working arrangements. It is plain that there is an irreconcilable difference of opinion between our Government and that of Germany. There are many Americans who, with the highest respect for our authorities at Washington, cannot quite understand why, from the very beginning, we should not vigorously and promptly have

held all belligerents alike, in their exercise of sea power, to a "strict accountability." In this note of July 21, our Government feels impelled "to press very solemnly upon the Imperial German Government the necessity for a scrupulous observance of neutral rights." This precise language, addressed to all offending belligerents by us, last February, and maintained with vigor on our part, would have had a most clarifying effect: Apparently, Germany's answer to our last note will be delayed, and will derive its tone and form from conditions that may yet develop. Meanwhile we have gone forward with the negotiations relating to the sinking by Germany of the *William P. Frye*, on February 27. Our readers will remember that the *Frye* was a large sailing ship, laden with wheat for England. Our Government and Germany do not agree as to the principles of international law, and the meaning of an old treaty of 1828. But Germany, nevertheless, is willing to pay for the *Frye*, and the amount due will be settled by a mixed commission. It is proposed to arbitrate at The Hague, or otherwise, the points of disagreement regarding the treaty.

Another
Great Ship
Sunk

Unfortunately, the feeling against Germany's submarine policy was again stirred up by the sinking on August 19 of the *Arabic* of the White Star Line. This incident was at first treated by many prominent newspapers not only as an unjustified outrage, but as sure to involve the United States in case it could be ascertained that some person of American allegiance might have suffered loss of life. The Government at Washington made no statement except that it would wait for the facts, and proceed in whatever it did with great deliberation. It was felt that almost everything depended upon the question whether or not there had been warning. The list of passengers was not large, and it was soon known that nearly all were rescued. Two American passengers, however, were reported as missing, with perhaps twelve of other nationalities, besides a larger number of members of the crew. The intensity of feeling in the United States was due to the way in which the *Arabic* case seemed to follow and relate itself to the controversy over the case of the *Lusitania*. Since in matters which may involve our nation in great crises we ought not to proceed without profound care and thought, it is proper to consider certain aspects of the *Arabic* case that are unlike those of the *Lusitania*. The great ship that

was sunk on May 7 was primarily a passenger ship, loaded with well-known people who were traveling in good faith; and she was only incidentally carrying a quantity of munitions. Furthermore, the *Lusitania* carried munitions at a time when the supply from America was regarded by nobody as vital in the conduct of the war. The *Arabic*, on the other hand, was chiefly a cargo ship, supremely devoted to the carrying of munitions, while she was in recent months only incidentally a passenger ship, and ought not, in prudence, to have accepted any passengers whatsoever. Technically, indeed, she was a commercial ship; and under international law she was entitled to be halted by a warning shot, and to have her passengers and crew placed safely in lifeboats, or otherwise protected, before any violence were done to the ship, or her cargo. This is admitted; and the Germans, if they gave no warning, were seriously remiss in the legal aspects of the matter. The incident in that case would be of international gravity, and not exclusively an American affair, even though some Americans were on board. But since our Government has taken the leadership in asserting the rights of neutral passengers on merchant ships of belligerent nations, we cannot ignore the *Arabic* case, and are obliged to take it up in all its bearings.

The "*Arabic*"
and Her
Status

Having said thus much from the standpoint of opposition to Germany's conduct, it is not improper to state what German sympathizers and supporters are saying, whether or not one accepts their views or feels other than repugnance for German submarine methods. The *Arabic*, in their view, was a more important instrument of war, and had been responsible for a far greater loss of life, than the submarine that sank her. The present war is primarily one dependent upon "munitions,"—that is to say, upon war supplies and materials. The *Arabic* was the largest of the English munition-carriers. She was built as a cargo-carrier, rather than a passenger ship, and upon her last three voyages from New York to England she had



© American Press Association, New York

THE "ARABIC", WHICH WAS SUNK BY A GERMAN SUBMARINE ON AUGUST 19

been heavily loaded with vast quantities of war material. When she sailed on her last outbound trip from New York, on July 28, she carried the greatest cargo of war munitions that ever left America. Her huge capacity of sixteen thousand tons was utilized to the utmost. She was as much engaged in the service of the war as the ammunition trucks that haul supplies to artillery in the trenches. German supporters claim, therefore, that any American who chooses to sail upon a ship of this character, engaged at the very moment in the intensest kind of belligerent service, is not clearly entitled to those guarantees that belong, under the recognized principles of international law, to travelers on ships of a merchant character engaged in ordinary trade. The *Arabic* had not been a regular liner from New York, but had been transferred from another route for the express purpose of carrying war materials. For months past the German submarines had been trying to intercept her. It is true that her technical character as a merchant ship was preserved, because she carried no mounted guns as an armed vessel. If she had carried mounted guns she could not, under our law, have left an American port; and thus she would have been unable to render the war services (ammunition-carrying) that were the sole object of her sailings. International law is not merely a set of technicalities that ignore obvious and dominant facts. Munition-carrying, from the standpoint of our Government, is legitimate; and, therefore, a ship like the *Arabic* may have her clearance



PROFESSOR WILSON'S SCHOOL OF INTERNATIONAL LAW

From the News (Detroit)

papers when she leaves port. But,—as she sails the seas under full steam for Europe,—she takes on a very different character, in the opinion of an enemy country. She becomes to her German adversaries a more deadly instrument of war than any British dreadnought. The *Arabic* was officered by members of the British Navy, and engaged, as we have said, in the most intense war service.

It will be remembered that the sinking of the *Frye*, which was carrying wheat to England, involved legal questions of international law and property rights. The *Dacia* was a ship under American registry, flying the American flag, which sailed for Germany with a cargo of cotton at a time when the Allies did not dispute the right of neutrals to ship cotton to Germany under neutral flags. The *Dacia* had been bought by Americans from German owners after the outbreak of the war. The English have always admitted and claimed the right of such transfer when made in good faith. The French have held a different view. The English therefore arranged to have the *Dacia* seized by a French warship, and after protests by our Government, and months of delay, it was condemned early last month by a French prize court and sold to a French owner who is now using this American ship,

under the French flag, with a new French name, in the coal trade between Wales and France. There seems to be no doubt whatever as to the violation by France of the established principles of international law in the seizure of this vessel. It was reported that our Government would protest. The case is a fair one for later settlement by friendly arbitration, and will involve no trouble.

Great Britain's earlier replies to the various notes and protests sent by our State Department regarding interference with our trade were not in the main relevant to the questions raised. They complained of Germany's conduct, and seemed to feel that Americans ought to be willing to have their trade with Europe cut off because Germans had been guilty of alleged atrocities, such as the poisoning of wells in South Africa. It was not until late in July that England began to send the United States notes that were carefully written from the standpoint of international law. Several of these notes came at the same time, and they were made public in the first week of August. The most important one was in reply to an American note of March 31. The British Foreign Office had taken four months to reply to the American protest against the British Orders in Council that immediately followed Germany's submarine

France
and the
"Dacia"

England
and
Neutral Rights

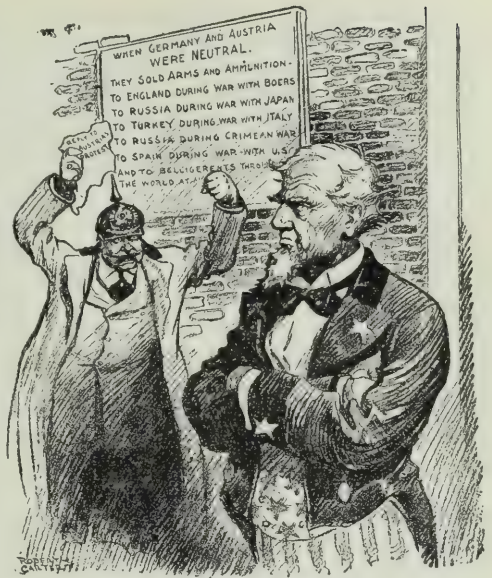
policy. We shall have a further opportunity to take up the points involved more explicitly. The ordinary reader, however, should have in mind the fact that England in trying to hurt Germany and destroy her trade, is said by our Government to use means that offend the rights of neutral countries. England has been working out a form of legal support in justification. She has virtually abandoned the doctrine of reprisal, and now defends her Orders in Council upon the doctrine of blockade. A blockade, to be legal, must be effective. To be effective it must operate against ships from one country as well as those from another. To be recognizable as a legal blockade it must be enforced along the coasts of the belligerent country involved. England's blockade, however, does not operate close to the German coast. It "holds up" ships on the high seas, far from Germany.

*Methods
Opposed at
Washington*

Furthermore,—our Government holds,—while it cuts off in large part the legitimate trade of the United States with Germany, this so-called "blockade" does not touch the trade of Sweden nor that of Norway and Denmark with Germany, because Germany controls the Baltic. But besides all this, England goes so far as to assume control over the kinds and amounts of trade between neutral countries like Sweden and the United States, on the ground that if Sweden, for example, were importing freely of cotton or food supplies, there might be some secondary traffic in such things between Sweden and Germany. Our readers should clearly understand,—however strong their sympathies may be with the cause of the Allies,—that such methods are beyond the pale of international law, and that if we submit to them we abandon the idea that the high seas are free. We accept the doctrine that we have no rights, and that we may trade only where and in such a way as is permitted. We do not wish to be on bad terms with England, yet the continued insistence by the British Foreign Office upon the courses hitherto adopted would seem to make it necessary to consider how to make our rights respected.

*Neutrality
a Duty*

It should be understood that in these matters the questions at issue are not those of property or of commercial profits. The United States at the outset of the great war announced its position to be neutral; and in repeated official statements it has declared that it would stand impartially for neutral rights. The



THE RECORD!
From the Sun (New York)

thing that the English are asking is that, through sympathy and friendship, we become in effect their allies. On the non-official side this, of course, is what our country has already become in a most important sense. Our leading financiers and capitalists, our great manufacturers, our inventors, our grain farmers, our cotton growers, our livestock raisers, all on the vastest scale are coöperating with Great Britain without let or hindrance. But our Government has told Germany that we would insist upon the most scrupulous observance of the rights of neutrals. And if our Government takes a different course in its official tone towards the Allies, it ought in all frankness to summon Congress and advise a direct and open alliance and an immediate participation in the war on the side of the cause that we are already serving so prodigiously.

*Our Arms
Trade and
Austria*

At the end of June, our readers will remember, Austria made a protest to the United States against the shipping of arms and ammunition from this country to the Allies. President Wilson had more than once expressed the grounds upon which the Government could not interfere with the export trade in contraband supplies. Mr. Lansing's reply to the Austrian note is dated August 5, and it elaborates the reasons why our Government will not change its attitude. It points out that Germany and Austria have been in the habit

of furnishing belligerents with war supplies; that both of them sold such material to England for use against the Boers; and that Germany went so far as to sell arms to the Turks to use against Germany's own ally, Italy, in the recent war over Tripoli. The point that has been most commented upon at home is Mr. Lansing's statement that in case of our being forced into war we should be dependent upon foreign nations for arms and ammunition, inasmuch as we have no great supply on hand. The Secretary declares that non-militant and peaceful nations would be at the mercy of aggressive and well-prepared assailants if it were impossible for them to buy war supplies from other neutral countries. Mr. Lansing's note again brings attention to the facts about our actual condition. Russia has millions of men, yet she is suffering untold calamities just now because she has been unable to make or to import sufficient war materials with which to meet the well-supplied Germans and Austrians. Mr. Bryan has said that we could raise a million volunteers between sunrise and sunset; but we would not have guns for them. It is true we have important establishments that can make guns and ammunition. But General Wood has told us that a German officer once pointed out to him that practically all these factories are in a limited area near the Atlantic seaboard, and that they might fall into the hands of an aggressive enemy long before the brave millions of men in the rest of the country could be supplied with guns or cartridges, not to mention artillery. These things demand serious thought.

*After
a Year
of War*

The course of the great war during August and the latter part of July is set forth for our readers this month, as usual, by the pen of Mr. Frank H. Simonds, who is recognized as a very careful and accomplished student of the military and the political aspects of this colossal conflict. In England the gravity of the situation is better realized, and the Government is taking over for direct control a great number of factories engaged in the making of war supplies. The retreat of Russia seems chiefly due to a lack of munitions. The Germans have been flushed with success during recent weeks; yet it does not appear that the disasters incurred by the Allies are in any way conclusive. They merely point to a prolongation of the war, while the Allies with their larger resources of men and materials can gradually make up

for the disadvantage of not having been prepared in advance. The unpreparedness of Russia and England would sufficiently explain the situation at the end of a year of war. Our Civil War lasted four years, and it was in the second year that volunteer armies began to be veterans, while war supplies and materials were being adequately produced. In Germany there has begun a great discussion over the nature and character of the final settlement, on the assumption that Germany and her associates are destined to dictate terms to their enemies. A minority of thoughtful Germans are opposed to the permanent retention of Belgium and to certain other annexations. The dominant German opinion at present, however, seems in favor of annexation. What many Germans fail to see is that the future of Belgium is not going to be decided by Germany, but by the whole world. As these lines were written, on the 21st of August, the situation in the Balkans was attracting the attention of the world and seemed to be approaching an adjustment. M. Venizelos had become Premier of Greece, and was endeavoring to persuade King Constantine to join in a policy that would again harmonize Balkan interests. The prospects were increasing that the four great Allies would induce Serbia, Greece, and Rumania to accept territorial changes in Bulgaria's interest. In that case Bulgaria was prepared to attack Turkey, and all the Balkan powers would be cooperating on behalf of Serbia and against the Austrians, Turks, and Germans. This, of course, would at once change the character of the Dardanelles campaign.

*Japan and
China*

As a result of bribery charges connected with the Japanese general election last spring, the Okuma cabinet resigned office late in July, but within a few days the Premier, at the request of the Emperor, withdrew his resignation and formed a new ministry, in which, however, Takaaki Kato, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, who has been bitterly opposed because of his Chinese policy, refused to retain his portfolio. His successor is Baron Kikujiro Ishii, Japanese Ambassador to France, who is regarded as especially friendly to the United States. Recent Chino-Japanese relations are summarized by Dr. Iyenaga on page 338 of this REVIEW. It has been remarked that Japanese commercial interests are profiting by the falling-off of European trade in the Far East, while trade with the Philippines is growing.

*Meager Rate
Relief for
Western Roads*

On August 11 the Interstate Commerce Commission published its long looked for decision on the application of the Western railroads for an increase in freight rates. The roads had asked for certain changes in tariffs which would yield about \$7,600,000 additional revenue per year. The decision allowed increases on certain commodities estimated to produce \$1,600,000 a year, an amount equal to only one-fourth of one per cent. of the revenues of the roads affected. These roads number forty-one and conduct the transportation business in eighteen States from Alabama to North Dakota. This meager and grudging allowance in the present critical situation of railroad finances was a severe disappointment to the managers and to everyone who believes that one of the most important present requisites for a generally diffused business vigor is an orderly and decently profitable conduct of the great transportation companies.

*A Strong
Minority
Dissent*

The original petition of these Western roads asking for increases in rates equivalent to less than two per cent. of their gross revenues was considered by many unprejudiced observers to be too modest; the award of one-fourth of one per cent. is, therefore, a virtual defeat of the effort to put the houses of these great transportation companies in order, and the only comfort to be obtained from the decision was the bald fact that an increase, however insignificant, had been sanctioned. Commissioner Daniels gave a bold and straightforward minority opinion denying the consistency of the majority report, and charging it with failure to meet the vital question with courage. Commissioner Daniels scored cleanly in his comments on the propriety of using the shady records of the Rock Island, Frisco, and Alton management as arguments against giving railroads in general such rates as will enable them properly to serve the public and their stockholders. He declared the time has come to make guilt personal and that the question of railroad rates should not be governed by considerations of individual instances of corporate mismanagement. All clear-headed men will agree with him in this stand. Commissioner Harlan also dissented from the majority decision and held that the railroads were entitled to the increases requested on all the principal items. It was high time, too, that some one in authority should say what Commissioner Harlan added as to the waste and

futility of much of the long-drawn-out subterranean burrowings under masses of statistics and testimony when the Government has to consider a simple business matter of rate changes. He complains most justly that "too much time and labor are expended in these recurring rate contests and some way should be found under legislative authority for arriving at results more promptly." It is not only a matter of a waste of time and energy, and of an unjust and embarrassing delay in getting an answer to applications for rate relief.

*Some of the
Majority
Reasoning*

In its majority report, the Commission holds that whereas the credit of the carriers has suffered, it has not suffered more than the credit of industrial enterprises; that whereas the carriers are paying higher prices for materials and labor, these are phenomena not peculiar to the railroad industry. But the Commission seems to forget the kernel of the whole matter in ignoring the fact that the regulation of rates is peculiar to the railroad industry. When an industrial concern finds its unavoidable costs of capital, of material, and of wages making the expense of delivering its product too high in relation to the selling price, it simply increases that selling price, and it is a really remarkable obliviousness to the primary question involved to frame the argument as it has recently been framed. Comment on it is the more justified because this particular argument has appeared many times throughout the hearings before the Commission, from State commissioners and others who opposed the railroads' request for relief.

*Freight Rates
on Anthracite*

The day after the decision in the matter of the Western railroads, the Commerce Commission announced reductions in the freight rates on anthracite coal which will take from the hard-coal railroads something like \$8,000,000 a year in revenues. This sum represents the actual decrease in freight to be paid under the new rates, but the Commission points out that as 80 per cent. of the coal affected is shipped by companies virtually owned by the railroads, much of the loss to them from the reduced tariffs will be offset by the increased earnings of the coal companies they control, and that when allowances are made for these bookkeeping losses, the net reduction in revenue will amount to not more than one-fifth of \$8,000,000. This way of figuring depends for its validity, of course,

on the assumption that the independent coal operators will not seek to increase their sales by reducing prices to the public, as many of them may easily do now, in view of the smaller transportation cost. The best judgment seems to be, however, that the public will not gain at all through any reduction in the prices of its coal, and that the net result of this lowering of the tariff will be increased profits for some independent coal companies and for the middlemen. At the same time this decision was handed down, the Commerce Commission sanctioned increases of 25 cents per ton on anthracite coal from Pennsylvania mines to Chicago and other western points, a change which will decidedly lessen the blow of the general reduction to railroads like the Erie, Lehigh Valley, and Lackawanna.

*Relief Granted
the Express
Companies*

The express companies of the country have been operating for more than a year under rates as reduced by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The result is that whereas the net income of the leading concerns aggregated \$1,250,000 in 1913, the same companies showed an aggregate deficit of \$1,130,000 in 1915, and one of them, the United States Express Company, has given up the fight and gone out of business. The Commerce Commission has been conducting a long investigation of this express situation; it found that during the past year, when the express companies showed the heavy deficit noted above, they handled 2,225,928 more shipments than in the profitable year before, and reported a decrease in gross revenue for the larger volume of shipments of more than \$13,500,000. Under the lower rates, as prescribed by the Commission, the Adams Express Company received, on the average, for each shipment, twelve cents less than it received in 1913; the American Express Company, seven and one-half cents less; the Southern Express Company, nine cents less; and the Wells Fargo Company, six cents less. The Commission has now decided that the concerns are as a whole operating at a loss, and in a decision handed down on July 22 allows them to increase their rates on packages under one hundred pounds by about four per cent. of the former tariffs. The change will mean about \$5,000,000 a year to all the companies in additional revenue. It is hoped that this relief will enable the express companies to keep on in business, as there are a number of functions they can and do perform for which the parcel post offers no adequate substitute.

*Record
Harvests
Assured*

The Government monthly crop report that appeared on August 8 was the first that could be quoted with final assurance, as by that time the harvests were so far advanced that no important changes in the great cereal crops could be expected. The early reports of this year were highly favorable. Then came, in many important grain-raising areas of the country, persistent and heavy rains, which caused much damage and led to fears of reduced yield estimates when final figures were to be obtained. These final totals are, however, the reverse of disappointing. The total production of wheat is estimated at 966,000,000 bushels, 75,000,000 more than last year's crop, which was the largest ever grown in the United States. The increase over last year's record yield is due to the larger area planted, which in 1915 was 6,000,000 acres more than in 1914. The estimated yield per acre this year is 16.3 bushels, as against last year's actual yield of 16.6. The corn lands this year are estimated to produce 2,918,000,000 bushels; last year there was harvested 2,672,800,000 bushels. The 1915 crop of oats appears to be 1,402,000,000 bushels, against last year's yield of 1,141,000,000 bushels.

*Pacific
Mail Steamers
Are Sold*

There has been wide discussion of the La Follette Seamen's Act and the claims of the shipowners that its provision, requiring all vessels to employ crews 75 per cent. of which speak English, would drive the American flag from the Pacific, and the denials by the friends of the measure that it would have any practical harmful effect on what there is of an American mercantile marine. In the middle of August it was announced by the Pacific Mail Steamship Company that it had sold five of the largest and finest ships in the trans-Pacific service to the Atlantic Transport Company, a subsidiary corporation of the International Mercantile Marine, the huge but financially unsuccessful combination of transatlantic lines engineered by the late J. P. Morgan. The Pacific Mail Company is also understood to be offering the remainder of its fleet for sale, and its president has stated publicly that the company will go out of business, and that the reason for it is the La Follette Seamen's Act. When this occurs, there will be just one vessel crossing the Pacific under the American flag,—the *Minnesota*, belonging to the Great Northern Railroad. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company has not paid a dividend in sixteen years.

Six of its vessels were the largest flying the American flag, and one of them, the *Manchuria*, is said to be the fourth largest ship in the world. The five liners sold to the Atlantic Transport Line will, for the present, operate under American registry, but it is thought that this is merely because of the obvious advantage under war conditions in the Atlantic trade. The opportunity to make the sale was a boon to the Pacific Mail Company in its rather desperate situation, and resulted, of course, from the war demands. Owing to the large volume of exports to Europe and, in even greater measure, to the withdrawal for war uses of vast tonnage of English and other ships, there has been more freight offered for the Atlantic voyage to the International Mercantile Marine vessels than they could carry.

*New Efforts
Toward a
Shipping Bill*

It is obvious that the Administration will, in the next session of Congress, renew its effort to obtain a Government ship-purchase bill on some such plan as that outlined in the measure defeated last winter. Secretary McAdoo is already actively championing the project. In an address at Greensboro, N. C., on August 4, he attempted to convince his hearers that the markets of Central and South America will be opened to us with much more facility and profit with the aid of a Government-owned mercantile marine, and that if there were an ample supply of American ships to carry cotton to Europe, the lower freights would give the planter from one to two cents per pound more than he is receiving at present. Secretary McAdoo is obtaining answers from the delegates to the Pan-American financial conference held in Washington last June to a long list of questions relating to shipping facilities and ocean rates. At President Wilson's request, the Interstate Commerce Commission is to make an investigation of transportation lines and rates between the United States and foreign countries. Shippers throughout the country have been asked to write to the Commission immediately, giving the fullest information about existing conditions. In the meantime, exports in American vessels have increased during eleven months of the fiscal year no less than 68 per cent., the shipyards of the country are working at a fever heat, and conditions are as different as could well be from those obtaining when the original Ship Purchase bill was offered and rejected. Those interested in the growth of American shipping and the use of the Panama Canal

will find some remarkable information presented in the authoritative article written for this number of the REVIEW by Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin.

*A Costly
Labor
Inquiry*

The Federal Commission on Industrial Relations expired by limitation on August 23, having expended \$500,000 of public money during the two years of its existence. The Commission was made up of nine members, three of whom represented employers of labor, three the membership of labor unions, and three the general public. President Wilson had appointed as representatives of the public the chairman, Mr. Frank P. Walsh, of Missouri; Professor John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin, and Mrs. Florence J. Harriman, of New York. To represent the employers of labor he had named Mr. Harris Weinstock, of California; Mr. S. Thruston Ballard, of Kentucky, and Mr. Frederic A. Delano, of Illinois (succeeded later by Mr. Richard H. Aishton of the same State); and from the ranks of organized labor Mr. John B. Lennon, of Illinois; Mr. James O'Connell, of the District of Columbia, and Mr. Austin B. Garretson, of Iowa.

*Proposed
Federal
Commission*

The public has known little about the doings of this body, save what could be gathered from the more or less sensational reports of public hearings in various cities, which, in the opinion of Chairman Walsh, seem to have constituted the prime reason for the Commission's existence. The law prescribed other functions, however, which some of the members regarded as serious duties. It provided, for example, that the Commission should inquire into "the methods for avoiding or adjusting labor disputes through peaceful and conciliatory mediation and negotiations; into the scope, methods, and resources of existing bureaus of labor and into possible ways of increasing their usefulness." Those members of the Commission who have definite constructive ideals tried to center their activities, as much as possible, on this branch of inquiry. And while the Commission was unable to agree on the form or substance of a general report, the conclusions of Professor Commons, Mrs. Harriman, and Messrs. Weinstock, Ballard, and Aishton regarding a proposed Federal Commission on Industrial Relations deserve careful consideration. These members had at least a realizing sense of their responsibility to the country.

*Futility of
More
Law-Making*

Five of the nine members signed a report written by Professor Commons which took strong ground against further attempts at labor legislation until ways could be found to make existing laws enforceable. The common sense, as well as the admirable spirit, of the report is illustrated by the following sentence:

While recognizing the justice of much of these demands for new laws we are not placing them first in our report, but rather the methods of investigating conditions, of enacting legislation, of judicial interpretation, and administrative enforcement necessary to make them worth while as a real remedy.

The report also recognizes the fact that governments in themselves cannot be looked to for remedying evil conditions. Professor Commons and his colleagues hold that improvement must come through the coöperation with government of voluntary organizations,—employers' associations, labor unions, farmers' societies. For the administration of labor laws it is recommended that both State and Federal Industrial Commissions be created, all bureaus or divisions dealing with conditions of labor, including industrial safety and sanitation, workmen's compensation, employment offices, child labor, industrial education, statistics, etc., to be placed under the direction of such commissions. Following the recent tendency of labor legislation toward complete centralization in the hands of a single department, the commissioners advocate a system similar to that established in Wisconsin in 1911, in Ohio in 1913, and in New York during the present year. It is conceded that the existing Federal Department of Labor should be retained for educational and political purposes, while possibly a similar bureau might be created in large industrial States like New York and Pennsylvania.

*The
Convention at
Albany*

The New York Constitutional Convention at Albany continued to debate proposed amendments throughout the month of August. Among the important votes taken on outstanding measures was that of August 18 on the new plan for assigning the making of State budgets to the Governor rather than to the Legislature. Only four votes were recorded against this proposition, which was hailed by leading citizens of the State, including President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, as one of the most important

steps taken within recent years toward making State government both more efficient and more responsible. It was expected that the Short Ballot, which was fully discussed by Dr. Cleveland in our August number, would also receive an affirmative vote at the convention, and thus the two most important changes seriously considered by the delegates seemed likely to be adopted. The amendment offered by Mr. William Barnes forbidding the Legislature to pass any bill granting privilege or immunity to any class of individuals was defeated by a vote of 70 to 38. This amendment was aimed especially at minimum-wage legislation.

*Eminent
New
Yorkers*

Our obituary record this month includes the names of three distinguished citizens of New York City, who were also of national note. The eldest was the Hon. Benjamin F. Tracy, a lawyer of acumen and a veteran of the Civil War, who had served in the cabinet of President Harrison and who was regarded as one of the creators of our modern navy. He was eighty-five at his death, and his name had not appeared very frequently of late in the newspapers. But his mind was keen and active to the last; he held strongly for the need of increased national defense, and believed especially in the further development of the navy. The Hon. William M. Ivins had also, like General Tracy, been a prominent figure in the citizenship of the metropolis. He was a man of wide intellectual taste and accomplishments, and a lawyer of great ability. His death was possibly hastened by the strain of the great libel case of William Barnes against Theodore Roosevelt. He was Mr. Barnes' principal lawyer, and had conducted the case under conditions of ill health. Dr. E. R. L. Gould was a younger man, still in his prime, and a typical member of that group of citizens of New York whose public spirit and wide acquaintance with affairs have in so many ways assisted in the improvement of municipal government and the betterment of the people. He was a great authority upon housing and social conditions, was City Chamberlain in the administration of Mayor Seth Low, was a reformer in politics, and a friend and supporter of President Wilson, with whom he had been associated in student days at the Johns Hopkins University. He had in earlier years made important inquiries for the Government into housing and labor conditions in Europe, and had served more than one university as a professor or lecturer in the field of sociology and economics.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From July 21 to August 20, 1915)

The Last Part of July

July 21.—The United States sends a third note to Germany relative to the rights of neutral passengers on merchant ships; the German note of July 8 is declared to be "very unsatisfactory," because it fails to meet the real differences and proposes a virtual suspension of accepted principles of law and humanity; repetition of the incidents complained of must be regarded as "deliberately unfriendly."

It is learned that Australia has taken over Germany's island possessions in the Pacific which were seized by Japan.

July 24.—French troops in the Vosges Mountains carry an important German position south of Ban-le-Sapt.

July 25.—The American steamship *Leelanaw* is sunk by a German submarine off the northwest coast of Scotland, warning being given and the crew being towed to safety; the vessel was carrying flax (declared contraband by Germany) from Russia to Ireland.

July 27.—An official statement of British military losses up to July 20 places the totals at 61,384 killed, 196,620 wounded, and 63,885 missing; the naval casualties were 7929 killed, 874 wounded, and 303 missing.

July 28.—The British Admiralty announces that German submarine attacks on British merchant ships have resulted in the death of 1550 persons, 22 others being killed in attacks on neutral ships.

July 30.—Germany replies to the American note of June 26 regarding the sinking of the American sailing vessel *William P. Frye*, stating that a German prize court has held that the sinking was justified but that the owners should be indemnified; the alternative is offered of submitting the whole case to arbitration at The Hague.

A German gain of British trenches along a front of one-third of a mile at Hooze, in Belgium, is accomplished with the aid of flame projectors, a new method of warfare.

Austrian troops occupy Lublin, in the great enveloping movement on Warsaw, severing one of three railroad lines available for the withdrawal of Russian armies.

July 31.—The British steamship *Iberian* is sunk by a German submarine, after attempting to escape; six of the crew (including two Americans) are killed by shots from the submarine.

The First Week of August

August 1.—The beginning of the second year of war finds German troops occupying 20,450 square miles of enemy territory in the West (including nearly all of Belgium and a large section of north-eastern France), and 58,000 square miles of Russian territory in the East; the French occupy a small section of German land in Alsace, and the Russians hold a strip of Austrian territory in eastern Galicia.

Austrian and German reports of Russian sol-

diers made prisoners during July total 230,000.

Statistics of German wounded, for the nine months ending with April, show that 88.5 per cent. returned to service, 9.6 recovered but were unfit for further service, and 1.9 died.

The Russian Imperial Duma meets in session at Petrograd and votes unanimously not to conclude peace until Russia is victorious.

August 2.—Mitau, capital of the Russian province of Courland, is captured by the Germans in an offensive movement aimed to drive southward behind the strongly fortified line upon which the Russians are falling back from Warsaw.

August 3.—Three notes from Great Britain to the United States, relating to interference with American trade in the war zone, are made public at Washington; the notes constitute a legal argument to show that Great Britain is adhering to principles of international law as modified by modern conditions and by the exigencies of the present situation.

August 4.—A French prize court confirms the seizure of the American steamship *Dacia*, which had been transferred from German to American registry since the war began; the United States will protest the decision.

It is announced at Berlin that Major-Gen. Nicholas von Below, infantry commander, has been killed in action.

August 6.—German troops occupy Warsaw, the capital of Russian Poland and the third largest city in Russia; no serious defense was offered, the Russians having been content to withdraw their armies steadily eastward rather than risk a threatened envelopment of their whole force by a great German encircling movement.

August 7.—The Allied forces at the Dardanelles make a fresh landing of the Gallipoli Peninsula, in Suvla Bay, on the northern shore.

The Second Week of August

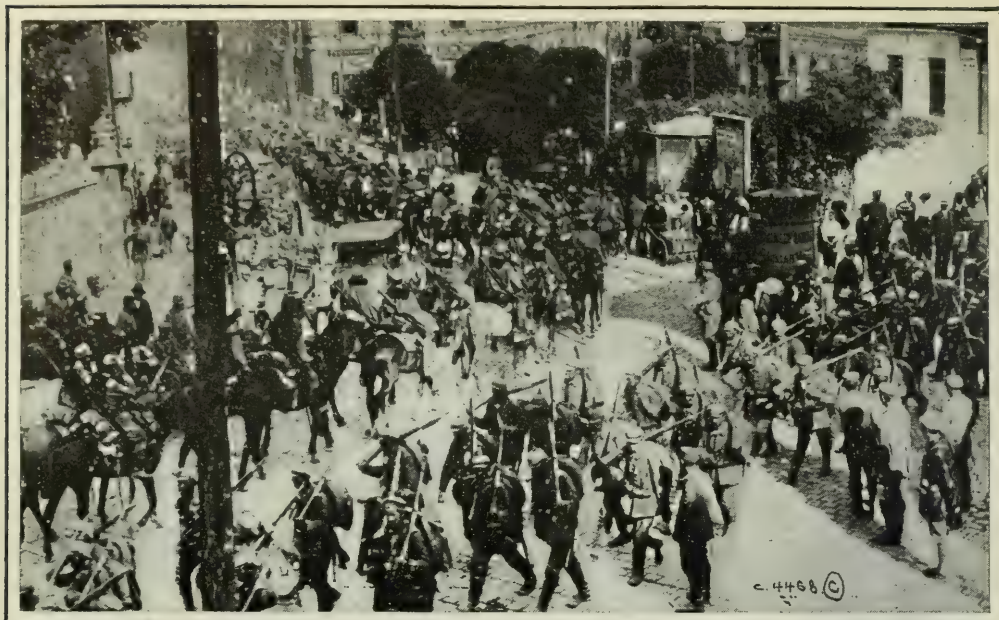
August 8.—It is reported in Petrograd and London that Germany has proposed a separate peace to Russia, through the King of Denmark; Germany would retain western Poland, now occupied, and Russia would be given Galicia (Austrian territory).

August 9.—The Turkish battleship *Kheyr-ed-Din Barbarossa* is sunk by a British submarine at the entrance to the Sea of Marmora.

The British forces in Belgium recover by assault the ground lost at Hooze on July 30.

German airships make a night attack on the east coast of England; the British Admiralty reports that no material damage was done, but that one man and thirteen women and children were killed; it is also stated that one Zeppelin airship was destroyed.

The Bulgarian Prime Minister, V. Radoslavov, is quoted as stating frankly that, if Serbia would



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ENTRY OF THE VICTORIOUS GERMAN AND AUSTRIAN TROOPS INTO PRZEMYSL, THE GREAT FORTRESS IN GALICIA RECAPTURED FROM THE RUSSIANS IN JUNE

cede Serbian Macedonia, Bulgaria would send her armies against Turkey within twenty-four hours.

August 10.—The British auxiliary cruiser *India* is sunk by a German submarine off the Norwegian coast, and the torpedo-boat *Lynx* is sunk by a mine in the North Sea.

August 11.—An official British statement declares that recent activity by Australian and New Zealand troops on the Gallipoli Peninsula has nearly trebled the area occupied by them.

An Italian submarine torpedoes and sinks the Austrian submarine *U 12*.

Austrian destroyers attack points on the Adriatic coast of Italy.

August 12.—It is stated that during the first year of war France spent \$384,000,000 in feeding the families of soldiers and workers thrown out of employment; 3,000,000 persons are receiving allowances.

August 13.—The United States replies to Austria's protest against the sale of war supplies by American manufacturers for the use of the enemies of Austria and Germany; the reply maintains that the United States, for its own future safety, must recognize the right of a belligerent to purchase munitions from neutrals, and cites instances of the export of such articles from Germany and Austria to belligerents in past wars.

The British transport *Royal Edward* is sunk in the Egean Sea by an enemy submarine, nearly 1000 men being drowned.

The Austrian submarine *U 3* is sunk by a French destroyer in the lower Adriatic.

The Third Week of August

August 15.—Throughout the United Kingdom all persons between the ages of 15 and 65 furnish

data to the Government regarding their ability to perform work for the state.

August 16.—Upon the assembling of the Greek parliament, the strength of the Venizelos supporters (confirmed by the recent elections) brings about the resignation of Premier Ghounaris and his cabinet.

A German submarine bombards points on the western coast of England.

August 17.—In the *Frye* case, the United States accepts Germany's offer of indemnity, but proposes that the alternative of reference to the Hague Court be also adopted as a method of interpreting the disputed points.

Kovno, the northernmost Russian fortress on the second line of defense, is carried by storm by German troops; more than 400 cannon are taken.

August 17.—A minor naval engagement between squadrons of British and German destroyers, off the Danish coast, results in the sinking of a small British cruiser and a destroyer.

A third German airship raid on England within ten days causes the death of ten persons near London.

August 18.—Ex-Premier Venizelos accepts the King's invitation to form a cabinet in Greece.

August 19.—The White Star liner *Arabic* is torpedoed and sunk by a German submarine, while south of the Irish coast on her way to New York; about twenty passengers (including several Americans) are drowned.

It is announced that the Allies have agreed to declare cotton contraband of war.

August 20.—A German official statement announces the capture of the Russian fortress of Novo Georgievsk, with more than 20,000 prisoners.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From July 21 to August 20, 1915)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

July 22.—The Interstate Commerce Commission allows advances in express rates (except in the zone north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi), which will increase the companies' revenues by 3.86 per cent.

July 23.—The resignation of James M. Sullivan, Minister to Santo Domingo (against whom charges had been preferred and investigated), is accepted. . . . President Wilson leaves Washington for a second vacation period at his summer home in New Hampshire.

July 27.—The city of Nashville is placed in the hands of a receiver following charges of misappropriation of funds; the Mayor, several City Commissioners, and the Treasurer are suspended.

August 3.—The Mississippi Democratic primary results in the nomination of Lieutenant-governor Theodore G. Bilbo for the Governorship by a majority vote.

August 4.—Official figures show that immigration for the year ending June 30 was the lowest since 1899; 326,700 immigrants were admitted, as compared with 1,218,480 during previous year.

August 7.—In the Kentucky primaries, the following are nominated for Governor: ex-Congressman Augustus O. Stanley (Democrat), E. P. Morrow (Republican), and Fred J. Drexler (Progressive).

August 11.—The Interstate Commerce Commission permits increases in carload freight rates on forty-one railroads in the Middle West; the equivalent of a 2 per cent. increase on the total freight revenues had been asked, but the increases allowed amount to less than half of 1 per cent.

August 12.—The Interstate Commerce Commission orders reductions in the freight rates on anthracite coal, amounting to from 10 cents to 80 cents a ton; it is estimated that the reduction in annual revenue will total \$8,000,000. . . .

President Wilson returns to Washington from his summer home in New Hampshire, to deal with the Mexican situation.

August 17.—The Interstate Commerce Commission severely arraigns the financial operations of the Rock Island Railroad, including the recent receivership proceedings.

August 18.—The New York Constitutional Convention agrees almost unanimously upon its first important proposal, for an executive State budget.

August 19.—The New York Constitutional Convention unanimously adopts a section aimed to remedy the law's delays by revising legal procedure in civil cases.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

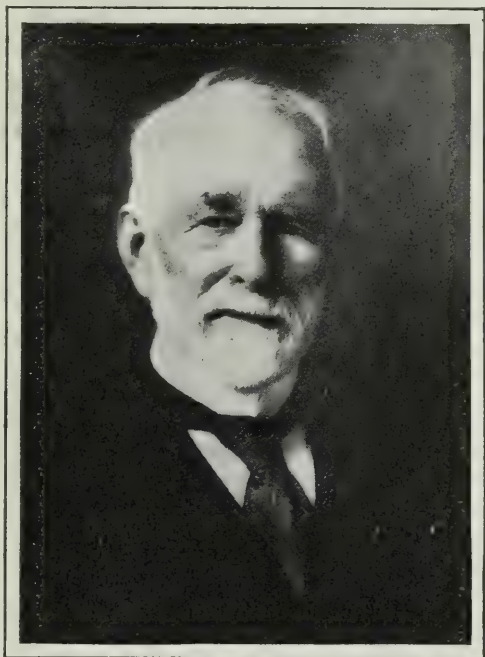
July 21.—The voters of Alberta Province, in Western Canada, adopt prohibition by a large majority.

July 25.—Juan Luis San Fuentes is elected President of Chile.

July 27.—A new revolutionary movement breaks out in Haiti, under the leadership of Dr. Rosalvo Bobo; in retaliation 160 political prisoners (including ex-President Orestes Zamor) are executed by Government officials.

July 28.—Haitian revolutionists remove President Guillaume Sam from the French legation where he sought refuge, and kill him; the American cruiser *Washington* arrives and lands marines and sailors to prevent further rioting.

July 29.—The Japanese Minister of the Interior, Viscount Oura, resigns under charges of



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

THE LATE GEN. BENJAMIN F. TRACY

(See page 284)

receiving money from a candidate during the recent elections.

August 2.—Mexico City for the fourth time comes under the control of the Carranza faction, General Gonzales occupying the city without resistance from the retiring Zapatistas.

August 6.—Bernardino Machado (former Premier) is elected President of Portugal, succeeding Manuel de Arriaga, resigned. . . . Elections in Manitoba Province, Canada, result in an overwhelming victory for the Liberals, due to graft exposures in the recent Conservative administration.

August 8.—Premier Okuma of Japan decides to withdraw his resignation, at the request of the



DR. ELGIN R. L. GOULD
(Who died last month. See page 284)

Emperor; the cabinet is reorganized, Foreign Minister Kato declining a reappointment.

August 12.—The Haitian National Assembly elects Gen. Sudre Dartiguenave President; Dr. Bobo, the leader of the revolution, receives but three votes. . . . Baron Kikujiro Ishii (Ambassador to France) becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in the reorganized Japanese cabinet.

August 18.—Dr. José Pardo is inaugurated as President of Peru.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

July 29.—Rear-Admiral Caperton with a force of American marines and sailors from the cruiser *Washington* assumes control at Port au Prince after the killing of the Haitian President, Guillaume Sam, by revolutionists; two American sailors are killed during a night attack by "snipers." . . . The United States demands of Mexican factional leaders that railroad communication between Mexico City and Vera Cruz be reestablished, to permit the sending of food into the capital, where starvation conditions are reported.

August 5-6.—Upon the invitation of the United States, the diplomatic representatives at Washington of six Latin-American republics (the Ambassadors from Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, and the Ministers from Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala) meet with the American Secretary of State to discuss means for ending the chaos in Mexico.

August 11.—General Carranza protests to those American Governments participating in the conference on Mexican affairs, and warns of the "dangers which may ensue from a new policy of

interference." . . . The South and Central American diplomats meet in a third conference with the American Secretary of State, in New York City, and agree upon a policy.

August 13.—Continued disturbances in Haiti, at Cape Haitien (the second largest city) cause the American naval officers to extend their control to that region.

August 14.—The State Department at Washington makes public the text of an appeal sent to many Mexicans "who possess authority or power," signed by the American Secretary of State and the Ambassadors or Ministers at Washington of Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala; they propose a conference of those directing the armed movements in Mexico, and offer their friendly and disinterested help.

August 16.—Armed Mexicans cross the Rio Grande into Texas and attack an outpost of United States cavalrymen, killing a corporal.

August 19.—General Villa, leader of one of the chief factions in Mexico, formally accepts the good offices of the United States and other American republics.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

July 21-22.—Rioting incident to a strike of workers at the Standard Oil plant in Bayonne, N. J., results in the death of two strikers and the injury of a score of policemen, strikers, and on-lookers.

July 22.—A strike at the Remington Arms works in Bridgeport, Conn., involving several classes of employees, is ended by the granting of wage increases and shorter hours.

July 24.—The excursion-steamer *Eastland* turns over on her side at her pier in Chicago; 852 persons (mostly women and children) are drowned,—although the vessel is only partly submerged, in broad daylight, close to the shore, in the heart of a great city.

July 28.—The Bayonne strike of oil-works employees is ended, principally through the efforts of Sheriff Kinkead, of Hudson County, who quelled disorder and obtained a wage increase for the strikers.

July 30.—Charles Becker is electrocuted in Sing Sing Prison, New York, the fifth person to die for the murder of Herman Rosenthal, a New York City gambler about to make graft disclosures; at the time of the murder, in 1912, Becker was a Lieutenant of Police.

August 3.—A cloudburst at Erie, Pa., floods a large section of the city, drowning twenty-five persons and causing much damage to property.

August 4.—A strike of 60,000 workers on ladies' garments in New York City is averted by arbitration which awards wage increases.

August 9.—The Government crop report indicates an unprecedented wheat harvest of 966,000,000 bushels; the corn crop will amount to 2,918,000,000 bushels; all foodstuffs show an increase over last year's production.

August 10.—United States military authorities begin at Plattsburg, N. Y., an experiment in training American citizens for national defense; more than 1100 men of all ages present themselves for a course of thirty days' military instruction (see page 301).

August 11.—A shipment of \$50,000,000 worth of gold and securities from Great Britain to the United States, to equalize exchange, arrives safely at its destination in New York City. . . . The Vesuvius, Etna, and Stromboli volcanoes, in Italy, become active following a mild earth shock.

August 12.—The fall of an army aeroplane at Ft. Sill, Okla., causes the death of Captain George H. Knox and serious injury to Lieut. P. B. Sutton.

August 13.—The Pacific Mail Steamship Company sells to the Atlantic Transport Company five of its transpacific steamships; announcement had earlier been made that the provisions of the new Seaman's Law, regarding labor, would compel the company to discontinue its sailings.

August 16-17.—The Texas coast is struck by a severe tropical storm, which causes the death of nearly 200 persons and property damage amounting to millions of dollars; at Galveston the great sea wall holds, but buildings along the waterfront are destroyed; a United States military camp at Texas City is completely wrecked.

August 17.—A band of armed men in Georgia lynches Leo M. Frank after breaking into the State prison at Milledgeville; Frank had been convicted of girl murder, but the death sentence had been commuted to life imprisonment because of the doubtful character of the testimony. . . . The Missouri Pacific and the St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern railways are placed in the hands of receivers.

OBITUARY

July 21.—Wayland Richardson Benedict, emeritus professor of philosophy at the University of Cincinnati, 67.

July 22.—Sir Sanford Fleming, a noted Canadian railroad engineer and scientist, 88. . . . Mrs. Martha Baker Dunn, the author, 67.

July 23.—William M. Ivins, the eminent New York lawyer, 64. . . . Edwin C. Martin, former editor of *McClure's*, 64.

July 24.—Edward Bunnell Phelps; an insurance statistician and editor, 52.

July 26.—Jordan Lawrence Mott, one of the most prominent Eastern manufacturers, 85. . . . Sir James Augustus Henry Murray, editor of the Oxford English dictionary, 78. . . . John Jones Jenkins, Lord Glantawe, a notable figure in Welsh industry and politics, 80. . . . George Deardorff McCreary, ex-Congressman and former City Treasurer of Philadelphia, 70.

July 29.—Thomas Y. Crowell, the book publisher, 80.

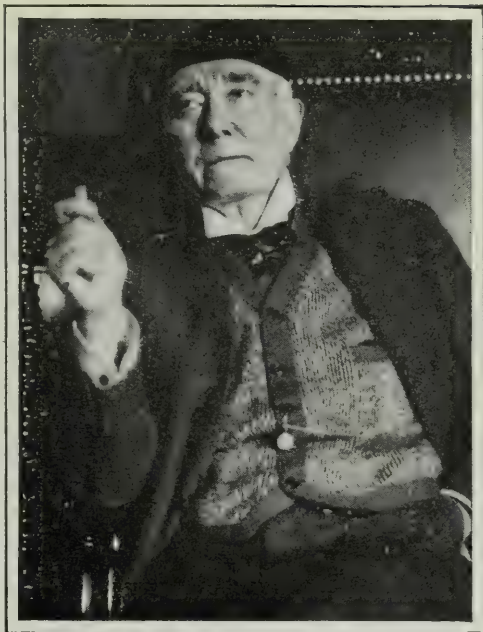
July 30.—Dr. David Streett, dean of the Baltimore Medical College, 60. . . . Rev. Madison Charles Butler Mason, D.D., a noted negro educator, 56.

July 31.—Dr. William A. Croffut, formerly a prominent newspaper editor, author, and traveler, 80.

August 2.—Col. Gustavus Benson Brackett, for many years Chief Pomologist of the Department of Agriculture, 88.

August 3.—Dr. Joost Marius Willem van der Poorten-Schwartz ("Maarten Maartens"), the Dutch author, 56. . . . Rear-Adm. James M. Forsyth, U.S.N., retired, 73.

August 5.—Dr. George Thomas Little, for more than thirty years librarian of Bowdoin College, 58.



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THE LATE WILLIAM M. IVINS
(See page 284)

August 6.—Gen. Benjamin F. Tracy, former Secretary of the Navy and a distinguished New York lawyer, 85. . . . Ferdinand Sulzberger, the New York meat-packer, 84.

August 7.—Rev. John Scrimger, D.D., principal of McGill Presbyterian College (Montreal), 66.

August 8.—Guy Stevens Callender, professor of political economy in the Sheffield Scientific School (Yale), 49.

August 9.—George Fitch, the author and humorist, 38.

August 10.—Prof. Thomas Bliss Stillman, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, a noted chemist, 63. . . . Charles Heber Clark ("Max Adler"), formerly a well-known humorist, 74.

August 13.—Rear-Adm. John McGowen, U.S.N., retired, 72.

August 14.—John Wesley Harper, the publisher, 84. . . . Prof. Frederick Ward Putnam, of Harvard, a noted anthropologist and zoölogist, 76. . . . Thomas Campbell Bagnia, the blind musician and composer, 64.

August 16.—Kalman von Szell, former Premier of Hungary.

August 18.—Dr. Elgin Ralston Lovell Gould, of New York, interested in movements for model tenements and loan systems for the poor, 55.

August 19.—Cardinal Serafino Vannutelli, Dean of the Sacred College, 81.

August 20.—Dr. Paul Ehrlich, the distinguished German medical scientist, 61. . . . Dr. Charles J. Finlay, who first discovered that yellow-fever is transmitted by the mosquito, 81. . . . James Robert Dunbar, formerly justice of the Superior Court of Massachusetts, 68.



THE RAILWAY STATION AT RIGA, RUSSIA'S BALTIC CITY THREATENED BY THE GERMAN ADVANCE



A STREET SCENE IN KOVNO, CAPTURED BY THE GERMANS LAST MONTH



THE KRASINSKI PLACE, IN WARSAW, THE GREAT POLISH PRIZE WON BY THE GERMANS



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE GERMAN CROWN PRINCE WITH HIS STAFF ON THE WESTERN BATTLE-FRONT

(Last month various activities of the Crown Prince's command, consisting of Wurttemberger troops, were reported from the Argonne forest west of Verdun. Some French trenches were taken by the aid of asphyxiating shells, but on the following day the French regained all except the first line of trenches.)



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A CANADIAN ARTILLERY CORPS SIGHTING-A 4.7 GUN

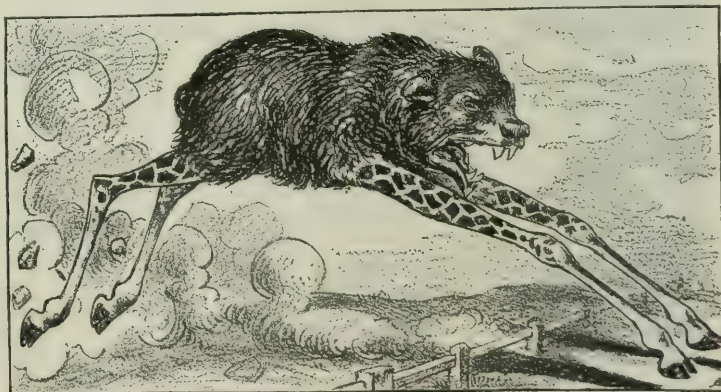
HISTORY IN CARTOONS



THROWN TO THE WOLVES!
From the *Sun* (New York)

THE outstanding feature of the European War during the recent months has aptly characterized the evacuation of Warsaw by the Russians.

been the tremendous Eastern sweep of the German forces. Driving the Grand Duke's army before them out of Galicia, the Germans concentrated on and captured the great Polish stronghold of Warsaw. The great Russian retreat was chronicled by cartoonists the world over. Sacrificing the bear's whelp, is the way Mr. Carter, of the New York *Sun*,



"WE HAVE MADE THE RUSSIAN BEAR DEVELOP LEGS LIKE A GIRAFFE"
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



INTERNATIONAL EQUITY, ACCORDING TO JOHN BULL
From the *Star-Telegram* (Fort Worth)

Between Great Britain on the one hand, and Germany on the other, Uncle Sam's position as a neutral nation, endeavoring to maintain his rights on the sea, is somewhat exasperating, to say the least. Each of the powerful belligerents maintains the correctness of its views, and Uncle Sam's only satisfaction is an increasing accumulation of diplomatic correspondence.



"YOU SHOULDN'T MIND A LITTLE THING LIKE THAT, SAM"
From the *World* (New York)



INTERNATIONAL LAW A BACK NUMBER
A BRITISH-GERMAN DUET: "It's out o' date!"
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



UNCLE SAM, ALMOST SUBMERGED BY A MASS OF
DIPLOMATIC NOTES
From *Il Fischietto* (Turin)



CLIPPING THE EAGLE'S WINGS
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



THE GERMAN REPLY

GERMAN GRETCHEN (to American tourist): "I have already done so much for you, that there will now be nothing left for me to do."

From Kladderadatsch © (Berlin)

Kladderadatsch, of Berlin, frankly suggests that Germany has reached the limit of her concessions to the United States, while *Punch*, of London, thinks that Uncle Sam is ready to lay down his pen and proceed to load up his revolver.



BY WAY OF A CHANGE

UNCLE SAM: "Guess I'm about through with letter writing."

From *Punch* (London)

ATTENDING TO HIS CORRESPONDENCE
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)AUSTRIA'S DEFENCES AGAINST STARVATION
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)

UNITED WE STAND

North and South America getting together on the Mexican situation.

From the *Daily News* (St. Paul)



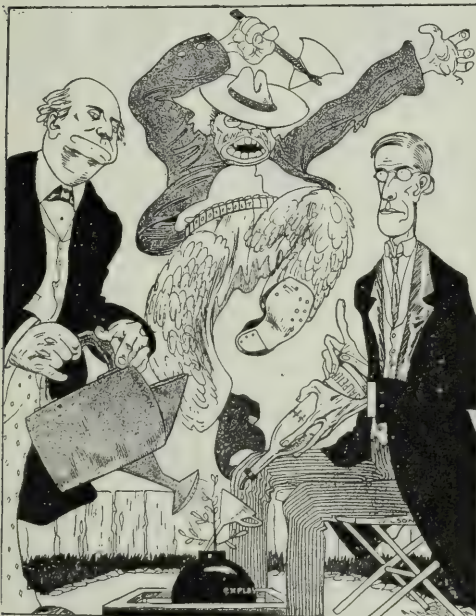
IN THE RESTAURANT "AU GRAND BALKAN"

(Chorus of guests, ordering what they all wish): "Here with that Macedonia dish." "Give me some more of the Turkey." "Another piece of that Albania pudding."

From *De Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)

The question of Bulgaria's entrance into the War became very prominent last month. She had made known her price in a frank

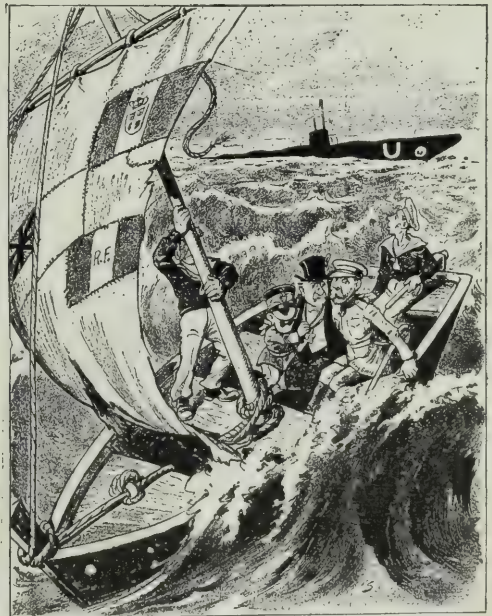
manner to both sides. The other Balkan powers, however, also have their territorial ambitions, as set forth by the cartoon above.



THE AMERICAN PEACE TREE

"The methods of all three—Bryan, Wilson, and Roosevelt,—in nurturing the tree are different, but the object is the same, namely, to secure the next Presidential election." (A Berlin view.)

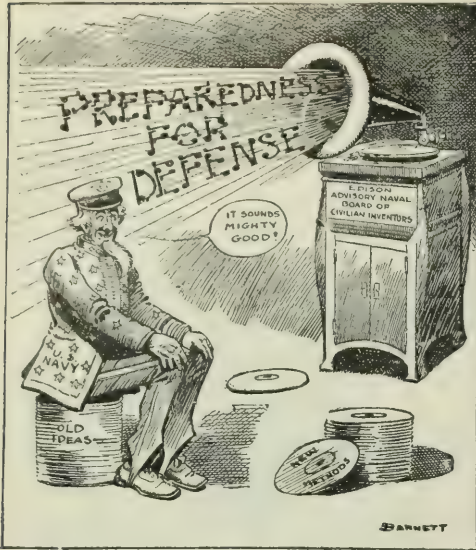
From *Kladderatsch* © (Berlin)



THE SEA-SERPENT OF 1915 IS NO IDLE SUMMER TALE!

(A fact well borne out by the recent destructive exploits of the German "U" boats.)

From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



A PLEASING TUNE
From the Tribune (Los Angeles)



JUST LOOKING THINGS OVER
From the Star (Washington, D. C.)

Public sentiment in favor of the general "jacking up" of our national defenses has increased to a marked extent. The administration is actively investigating the condition of our various defense services, and Secretary Daniels is proceeding with the formation of his board of naval advisors and civilian inventors. Military matters are also interesting our citizens personally, as witness the successful college students' and business men's camps for the training of volunteer officers.



A LARGER UMBRELLA FOR UNCLE SAM
From the News Tribune (Duluth)



TIME REMOVES THE FIRST IMPRESSION
From the Times-Dispatch (Richmond)



TRAMP, TRAMP, TRAMP, THE BOYS ARE MARCHING!
One of the first fruits of the campaign for preparedness.
From the Sun (Baltimore)

THE INVENTORS' BOARD AND THE NAVY

BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFFERT

IT is one of the anomalies of warfare that the machinery for fighting and killing has been brought to its present ghastly perfection not by swashbuckling, bloodthirsty soldiers, but by mild-mannered, peace-loving civilians. True, both army and navy officers have exercised their ingenuity to heighten the terrors of battle, but theirs are rather academic improvements on the more daring contrivances of civilian mechanics and engineers. Who gave us the turreted iron-clad? Not a naval officer, but Ericsson, a marine engineer. Who invented the machine-gun, which squirts death every day on a dozen European battlegrounds? Not a colonel or a captain, but Hiram Maxim, a brilliant American mechanic. Who gave the battleship its quick-acting gun-elevating mechanism? Not an ensign or a commodore, but Janney, an American mechanical engineer. Who invented the motors for turning turrets rapidly? Not a lieutenant, but H. Ward Leonard, one of Edison's former assistants. Who planned the submarine? Not a Hull or a Nelson, but Robert Fulton, an artist.

So, one after another, the really important, the really epoch-making inventions comprising the mechanism of warfare prove to be the conceptions of romantically imaginative but lamb-like private citizens. Usually their contrivances are anything but perfect. They must be developed, and it is in their development that the professional soldier has been most serviceable.

It is thus not only with the guns and submarines of war, but also with the telephones and electric lights of peace; for the inventions that have made the United States and other countries commercially great came not from within given industries, but from without. Always it is a dreamy pioneer, an intrepid free-lance, aflame with enthusiasm, who enriches his country with a radically new labor-saving device or way of utilizing energy. Morse was a portrait painter when he first turned his attention to the telegraph; Bell was a teacher of deaf-mutes when he

began his experiments with the telephone; Edison was a patentee of telegraphs and phonographs when he gave us the incandescent lamp; Marconi was a mere lad with a liking for physics when he conducted his first successful experiments in wireless telegraphy. With the single conspicuous exception of Edison not one of the inventors who have blazed new trails gave to the world devices that could be marketed at once. Development was necessary,—development by less brilliant intellects identified with the industries that were benefited.

HARD ROAD OF THE GOVERNMENT INVENTOR

If, then, the history of invention offers any criterion Secretary Daniels' plan for mobilizing our leading inventors and scientists for the upbuilding of the navy's *matériel* must at once strike everyone as commendable. The tales of mute, inglorious inventors who for lack of appreciation fill paupers' graves are no doubt exaggerated. But they are surely numerous enough to justify any reasonable method of removing the obstacles thrown in the mechanical genius's path by narrow-minded conservatism. As it is, the introduction of a new machine with marvelous possibilities is as much a test of optimism and persistence as of mechanical ingenuity.

We have been told that the Navy Department has rejected inventions only to conclude that they had merit after they had been adopted by foreign governments. That is not literally true. The fault rests with Congress rather than with the Navy. Under the present system no adequate sum is appropriated for the systematic examination of new devices. A few inventors have been financed by the Navy Department; but the best that can usually be done is to ask the inventor to submit a full-sized model at his own expense for test. If the invention is a new type of gun for super-dreadnoughts the inventor must spend perhaps \$50,000 and haul the weapon at his own risk and expense to the Government's proving-grounds. A

few rounds are fired; the gun turns out to be badly constructed, although the fundamental principle is correct; a report is submitted to the Secretary of the Navy that the piece failed. The possibility of raising capital for further experimenting is woefully slim in the face of that adverse official judgment.

MISTAKEN TESTING SYSTEM OF OUR ARMY AND NAVY

If this same system were followed by business men we would have no telephone, no incandescent lamp, no linotype machine, no printing-press, no automatic shoe-making machinery. Every invention is the product of an evolution. Success in mechanics is founded on instructive failures. Edison slaved month after month before he produced the first operative incandescent lamp,—an exhausted bulb in which a thread of charred cotton glowed feebly for a few hours. Bell's first telephone could hardly transmit speech, and when the first conversation with the instrument was held between New York and Boston the man at the transmitter had to yell greetings and songs beneath a blanket so as not to disturb the inmates of the boarding-house in which he happened to be living. One million dollars in money and a decade in time were spent before the "pulling-over" machine, now part of every shoe-factory's equipment, was brought to commercial perfection. It cost a great German chemical manufacturing firm nearly two million dollars to devise that wonderful process of making synthetic indigo which has completely destroyed the natural indigo industry of India. No great invention, whether it be a poem or a dynamo, ever leaped from the brain, perfect in every detail. And yet the whole system of testing inventions for both the army and the navy presupposes finality.

RESULT: WE COPY FOREIGN MODELS

What is the result? Our navy is but a reproduction of the best to be found abroad. Within the last twenty years we have originated nothing radical. Our naval constructors designed super-dreadnoughts only after England had shown them the way. We have not a single battle-cruiser in commission,—the type of 25-knot ship that made the engagement in the Bight of Heligoland sensationally historic. Our submarines have too few "mother" ships such as Germany has designed to act as floating docks and as bases of supplies. Our target practise is

woefully behind that of the Germans and English. If a manufacturer were to follow the same Chinese plan of copying his more enterprising rivals, there would be no Ford in the automobile industry, no Carnegie in the steel industry, no Rockefeller in the oil industry.

MANUFACTURERS LUKEWARM

The officers of the Navy are not blind to the absurdity of demanding from the inventor of guns and ammunition what no factory proprietor expects from a designer of machine tools or steam engines. Congress has made no provision for the inventor. That is why the Navy seems lax. Certain moneys are appropriated for building certain ships and for carrying on a certain amount of auxiliary work. Nothing is set aside for the inventor,—at least no substantial sum. No doubt Congress fondly imagines that manufacturers of naval material will spend their own money for the encouragement of the inventor. But manufacturers are not so commercially obtuse. If they invest millions in a plant for making guns it is because the machinery can be utilized for other, more peaceful purposes. No steel plant would pay dividends if it made only armor and guns for the Navy.

A BOARD TO ANALYZE NEW IDEAS

In a single month, since the beginning of the present war, the Bureau of Ordnance alone has been asked to consider no less than one hundred and thirty-five proposals for the improvement of the Navy's fighting mechanism. Officers already over-burdened with work must pass upon the suggestions. Ninety per cent. of the ideas submitted are so obviously old or absurd that they can be politely dismissed at once. But what of the other 10 per cent.? Who knows that among them may not be found a radical departure in gun construction of terrible possibilities? Or a method of keeping a battery on a target far more effective than that at present in use? Clearly we need a special bureau or board which shall have no other function than that of studying new ideas from every angle and for testing them at the Government's expense.

NEED OF A RESEARCH LABORATORY

To Mr. Edison we owe the excellent suggestion that a laboratory be established for research and for the development of promising schemes. No one appreciates more keenly than he the need of investigation and experiment. Did he not send men to the utter-

most parts of the earth in quest of fibres and grasses that might prove available for the making of carbon-lamp filaments? Did he not himself conduct literally thousands of experiments before he hit upon a particular variety of Japanese bamboo, only to discard that eventually in order to spin a filament from a solution of guncotton? Did he not fail a hundred times before he produced a marketable phonograph?

Such is the task of improving the highly complex organism of a battleship that a research laboratory is a vital necessity if the lay inventor is to be encouraged. No one man is omniscient enough to devise, unaided, new steels, new powders, new compressed foods, new torpedoes. Modern invention is more than ever the result of coöperative effort. The new gas-filled tungsten incandescent lamp which has so wonderfully cheapened electric lighting was developed not by a single superb intellect, but by a regiment of chemists, metallurgists, physicists, microscopists, photometricians, and spectroscopists, working together unobtrusively in the splendidly equipped laboratories of a great electric company, one man concerning himself only with gas pressures, another with the physical properties of wire, a third with the improvement of lamp bases, a fourth with the discovery of a better glass,—the results achieved by all being ultimately welded together in a product which is improving not only year by year but month by month.

THINGS THAT SHOULD BE TRIED OUT BY THE NAVY

What may not be expected from a similarly conducted naval laboratory? Take the single problem of gun erosion alone. Everyone knows that the rifles of our battleships may be fired scarcely two hundred times; it is assumed that the hot gases from the explosives pit and score the bore of a gun so that it must be returned to the shops in order to be relined. We have some plausible theories to account for gun erosion, but no facts. Only laboratory research will give them to us; and when we have them we may be able to invent guns of more resistant steel alloys,—guns that can perhaps be fired a thousand times or more.

The problem of gun erosion is but one among a hundred that leap to the mind. Battleships seem helpless against torpedoes. Can no adequate protection be devised? A submarine has only to dive in order to escape a surface enemy. Can no form of under-water submarine-chaser be invented? In the battles

that occurred off Coronel and Falkland Islands sailors were drowned by the hundred. Cannot life-rafts of sufficient size and buoyancy be carried and stored away even though decks must be cleared for action before going into battle? A torpedo can be directed from a submarine only after an officer has by compass taken the bearings of the hostile ship upon the destruction of which he is bent. Is there no way of deranging his compass and thwarting him?

The development of a single invention may mean a revolution in strategy. Just as the telescope made modern astronomy possible, just as the oil immersion lens opened up the whole field of modern pathology, so unexpected effects may follow the adoption of an apparently minor improvement worked out in a laboratory.

But once a laboratory is established,—a laboratory in which the foremost scientific investigators and engineers are installed,—it may be questioned whether we need a supervising board of civilians. The Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Mines, the Bureau of Standards, and other government institutions conduct an immense amount of extremely useful scientific research for the benefit of farmers, miners, and manufacturers; but no one has yet suggested that civilians shall direct their investigations. If an inventor of telephones patents a method of talking from San Francisco to New York his discovery is passed upon not by the board of directors of a telephone company, but by trained engineers. Indeed, the directors never hear of the inventor in the first instance at all. The corporation's research laboratory is the inventor's court of first and last resort. Only if the invention is worth purchasing are the directors consulted. Establish Mr. Edison's laboratory and the Daniels Board becomes superfluous.

INVENTORS TO PASS ON INVENTIONS

There still remains the question whether a board of inventors composed of Edison, Orville Wright, and other prominent inventors will really serve its purpose. It must accomplish something merely because the public expects action of some kind; but it may be doubted if it will prove an ideal organization. Inventors are not always the most charitable judges of inventions,—particularly the inventions of competitors. When John Ericsson submitted the plans of the *Monitor* to Napoleon III. he learned what it means to have his schemes judged by a rival. Napoleon gave Ericsson's drawings to Dupuy de

Lôme, probably the boldest engineer and inventor that France ever produced,—the type of man who would grace any technical committee of public safety. Dupuy de Lôme rejected Ericsson's plans. Why? He was the inventor of an excellent ironclad himself. If such occurrences are typical, what may not be expected when the improver of a torpedo submits his ideas to a board one of whose members is himself an inventor of torpedoes? The patent infringement suits that make dreary reading in law reports supply evidence enough that inventors, like opera tenors, are inoculated with the germ of jealousy.

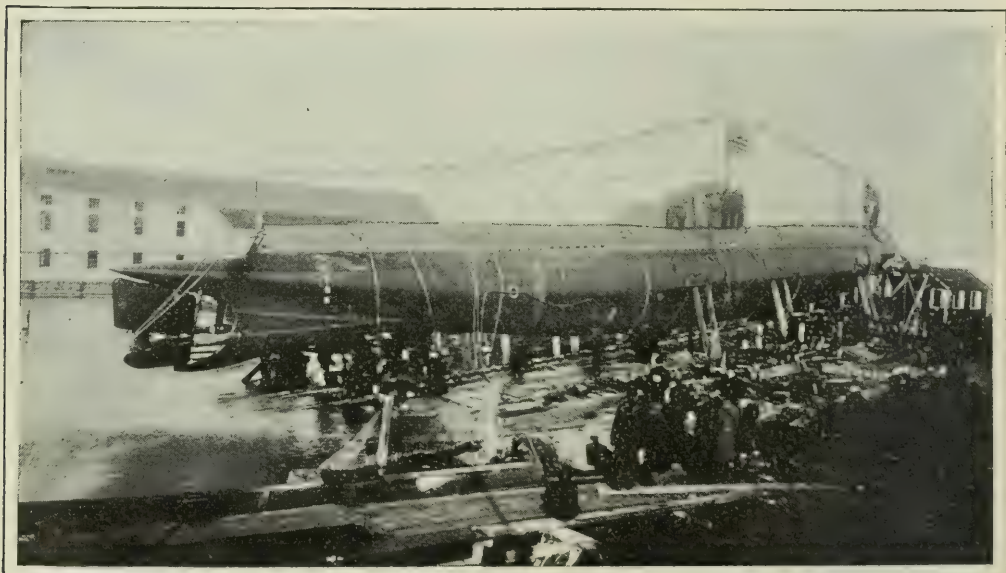
THE ENGLISH BOARD OF SCIENTISTS

The idea of invoking the aid of the most imaginative and at the same time the most practical minds in the country for the benefit of the Navy is not original with Secretary Daniels. In England H. G. Wells has long conducted an energetic newspaper campaign for the purpose of compelling the British War Office and Admiralty, by the sheer force of public opinion, to accept the advice of the leading British scientists and thus to place the army in France on a plane of technical efficiency at least comparable with that of the German enemy. He has succeeded so far that England has at last bestirred herself to the point of creating a board which is to consider the suggestions of laymen.

How strikingly different is the genesis of the American and British Boards! In Eng-

land a whole nation must be shaken out of its apathy, out of its almost sullen indifference to organized scientific research. In the United States, Congress must be prodded into taking a livelier interest in our national defenses. That explains at once the difference between the English Board (composed as it is of Admiral Fisher, a great naval officer, Sir J. J. Thomson, a great physicist, Sir Charles A. Parsons, a great engineer, and Doctor George T. Beilby, a great industrial chemist) and the American board composed of distinguished inventors whose remarkable achievements have in years past inspired column after column of newspaper comment and admiration. Not one of the members of the English board is as conspicuous a public figure as Thomas A. Edison. Indeed, Edison is probably better known to London taxicab drivers than Sir J. J. Thomson or Doctor George T. Beilby.

Swayed as our legislatures are by popular opinion, Secretary Daniels has acted shrewdly. Congress must be shaken into activity by an advertising scheme of national proportions. The willingness of Edison to head the Board is a spectacular advertisement. Reject the advice of an Edison, the greatest inventor that America or any other country has ever produced? Congress can hear the hisses of the multitude in its mind's ear. That is why we may expect decisive action for the benefit of the Navy when the House and the Senate convene again.



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

ONE OF THE NEW OCEAN-CROSSING SUBMARINES OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY—THE G-3
(She can cross the Atlantic and return without renewing her supply of oil fuel)



© International News Service, New York

SWINGING ALONG LIKE A TROOP OF REGULARS

THE PLATTSBURG RESPONSE

A CITIZENS' MOVEMENT TOWARD MILITARY PREPAREDNESS

BY WILLIAM MENKEL

PLATTSBURG, in northern New York, is picturesquely situated on the western shore of Lake Champlain. Besides being a United States customs port and a thriving manufacturing community, it is an attractive summer resort, and has interesting military and historical associations. Here is located an army post with barracks that are among the largest in the United States. Off Valcour Island near-by, on October 11, 1776, the English and American fleets, commanded, respectively, by Benedict Arnold and Sir Guy Carleton, fought the first naval battle that ever occurred between Great Britain and the United States. During the War of 1812 Plattsburg was the headquarters of the American forces on the Northern frontier. The famous battle of Lake Champlain, in which Commodore McDonough defeated a British fleet, took place in Plattsburg Bay, and in a land action in the vicinity General McComb repulsed a superior British force.

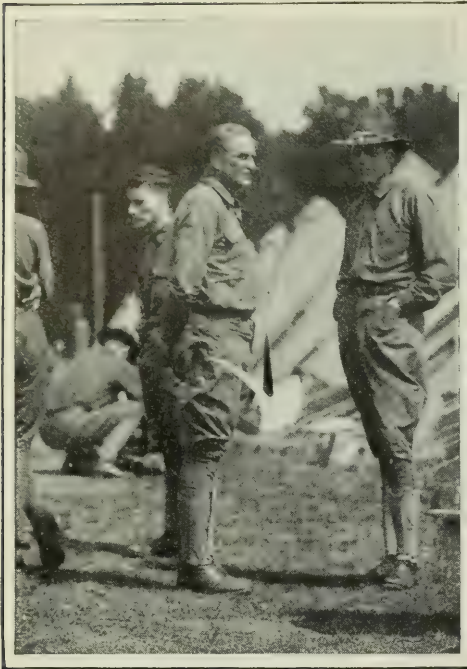
But last month Plattsburg received more attention from the country at large than ever before in its history. This was owing to the fact that there was conducted here a mil-

itary school more unique than any ever held on American soil,—or anywhere else for that matter.

Nearly twelve hundred men,—enough to form eight full companies at war strength,—gathered here on August 10 for a four weeks' course of military instruction. This alone did not make the encampment significant. It was the type of the men, the work they accomplished, and the spirit of it all, that gave the enterprise its remarkable character.

THE UNUSUAL PERSONNEL

For these were not boys from a military academy, nor was it a college students' military instruction camp, such as its immediate predecessor at this ideal spot. The pupils here were business and professional men, prominent in public affairs and in private life. Among them were diplomats,—including an ex-ambassador,—several ex-governors, high city officials, financiers, lawyers, college professors, writers, physicians, engineers, and merchants, as well as noted sportsmen, and a generous sprinkling of humble clerks. They came mainly from the big cities of the East,—Boston, New York, Phil-



PRIVATE ROBERT BACON
(Ex-Ambassador to France)

adelphia, Chicago, Baltimore, and Washington,—with large groups from many other widely scattered sections. Twenty-six States in all, and the District of Columbia, were represented in the camp. Some men came from as far south as Louisiana and others from the States of Colorado and California. More than 90 per cent. of them were university graduates, and the professional or business experience of the remaining 10 per cent. or so had enough value to bring the general standard of intelligence up to a very high average. Not more than a third of the men had ever had any previous military training.

The newspapers made much of this unusual personnel of the camp, the distinction and wealth of the men, and their personal doings. The emphasis placed on these features undoubtedly tended to give a wrong impression.

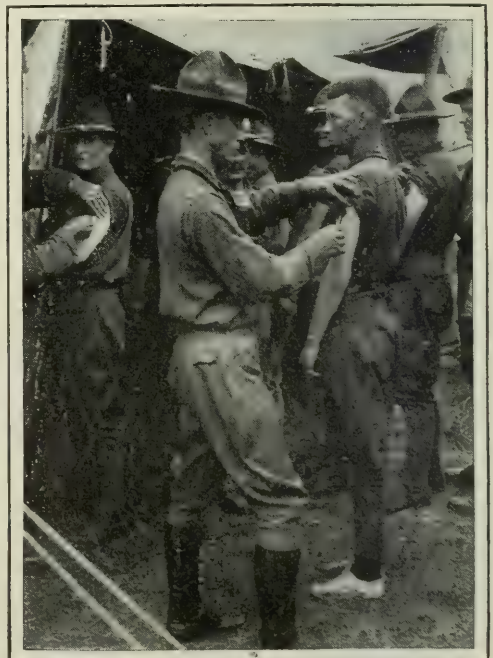
THEY MEANT BUSINESS

This was no mere play-soldiering, no sporting trip, or summer outing with military trappings. Social diversions were barred, and wives, sisters, and sweethearts were noticeably absent. These men came to work and to learn. They did both in dead earnest. Shunning publicity to the best of their ability, they indulged in no spectacular personal "stunts" for the benefit of the daily press.

Of idle jesting about the business in hand there was none. The orders of the day, self-imposed, and obeyed to the letter, were for hard, steady work and absolute submission to discipline.

Men like the Mayor of New York, chief of an army of 60,000 city employees, and Commissioner Arthur Woods, in authority over New York's police force of nearly 12,000 men (which, by the way, is more than one-third of the mobile army now in the continental limits of the United States), did duty submissively as privates. In more than one case men obeyed orders given by those who in private life are their subordinates. With the donning of their khaki uniforms the personalities of all these eminent gentlemen were completely merged with the mass,—ex-governors and ex-ambassadors, mayors, commissioners and so on, becoming simply Private Smith or Private Jones, and the whole group forthwith plunging into the serious business before them. That business was to learn, during their brief course, all that they possibly could of the real work of a soldier.

All branches of modern army service were represented in the camp,—infantry, cavalry, artillery, machine-gun battery, motor transportation, and signal, medical, and sanitary



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DR. T. E. DARBY, CAMP PHYSICIAN, INOCULATING
THE MEN AGAINST TYPHOID



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

GENERAL WOOD, THE GUIDING SPIRIT OF THE CAMP, AND HIS CAMP STAFF

(From left to right: Capt. Halstead Dorey, Camp Commander; Col. E. F. Glenn, Chief of Staff of the Eastern Department; Major-General Leonard Wood, Commander of the Eastern Department; Col. J. B. Bellinger; and Capt. Gordon Johnston, Adjutant of the Camp.)

corps. The use of motor-cars, notable for its importance in the European war, was in the nature of an experiment here, for no such equipment has as yet been tried in our army. This automobile division, together with the machine-gun troop of some sixty men, was under the command of Captain R. C. Bolling. The cars were loaned by various manufacturers, and consisted of officers' reconnoitering car, searchlight car, hospital car, a car with a machine-gun mounted upon it, and a dozen or so of motor-trucks and other automobiles.

AND THEY WORKED HARD

No men ever worked harder at the business or,—according to the testimony of army experts,—achieved more in the same time. The day's routine, from the reveille call at 5:45 in the morning to 10 o'clock taps at night, was crowded with tasks. Setting-up exercises, infantry and cavalry drill, gun sighting and aiming and artillery practise, map-reading and signalling, occupied the day until supper-time at six o'clock. Then the men gathered in a large semi-circular group on the parade-ground and listened to a lecture on some phase of military work, or an address by a noted visitor. After the talk the men were really free to do as they pleased until bed-time. But the periods of

rest, both during the day and at night, brought no cessation of effort. Work went on voluntarily. All over the tented field, men drilled, or sat studying, or lay prone, practising the sighting of their rifles. Nor did these self-imposed tasks end with daylight. Walking over the grounds in the darkness of the night, one could hear short and vigorous commands, followed by the sound of tramping feet, and the thud of guns on the rain-soaked sod. Turning the corner of the company street, you would come upon the dimly outlined figures of a squad still hard at work. Further on, where there was a powerful electric light, forty or fifty men would be gathered in a group, and,—approaching to find what was holding the close interest of the men at this hour,—you could see Captain Dorey, or some other regular army officer, before a blackboard explaining some infantry formation. And everywhere, on benches, under the lights at the corners of the streets, or in their tents, men singly or in twos or threes, pored over their text-books.

GETTING AHEAD OF THEIR LESSONS

So grimly did these men go at their tasks, one would easily have obtained the impression that the enemy had fixed a time for landing on our shores, and that the day was not far off. They outran the pace set for



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LEARNING HOW TO OPERATE THE THREE-INCH FIELD GUNS

them and constantly got ahead of their lessons. The word "shirk" was not in their lexicons. Sick leave was reduced to a minimum by the men themselves. Less than 1 per cent. were absent from duty, and these only for serious reasons. Such thirst for knowledge is exceptional at any time. But here were men of large public and business

affairs, most of them past the text-book studying age, giving up four weeks of their precious time, doing heavy field work by day and knitting their foreheads over books at night. And such an array of books as these men had in their tents! Besides the Infantry and Cavalry Drill Regulations, the "Manual of Military Training," and the "Field Service Regulations," there were works on "Tactical Principles and Problems," "Elements of Military Hygiene," and "Military Map-reading." Some of this was "required" reading, but most of it optional. The demand for text-books actually exceeded the supply at the camp stores.

The earnestness with which the men worked, and the high standard of intelligence represented, told heavily in the results achieved. The rate of progress was ten times more rapid than that usually attained by men in this field. After only a few days' training the men maneuvered on the parade-grounds with splendid alignment, eliciting the applause of visitors and the praise of army officers. The "close order" marching, however, was far from being the main thing. That was simply for discipline. The real business was battle practise,—field work in extended order, lying on the ground and shooting, advancing over rough country toward the enemy, digging trenches and occupying them even when filled with water. This serious side of the business of fighting, the drab drudgery of the soldier's work

ONE OF THE MOTOR-CARS, WITH A MACHINE-GUN
(J. G. Milburn and Van Ness Merle-Smith)



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TEACHING THE MEN HOW TO HANDLE THEIR RIFLES (LIEUTENANT BULL AS INSTRUCTOR)

in modern warfare, was what received the greatest emphasis.

WHAT WAS ACCOMPLISHED

These men were not graduated as officers from this brief schooling. It was not intended that they should be. The four weeks' intensive course covered the work that occupies five or six months in the usual training of soldiers, and that gives men a good grounding in military education. With this experience they can go on next year where they have now left off. It is suggested that the study may be continued during the winter by means of correspondence. But if these men go no further in their work,—and they are not the type of men who quit,—they will still be far better qualified to become officers than men fresh from the shop, the desk, and the field. They have also become competent to choose the particular branch of the service to join in case of need,—whether the infantry, the cavalry, artillery, hospital, sanitation, or signal corps,—thus avoiding mistakes made by men in the Spanish War. Moreover, these civilians have come into intimate touch with an admirable body of regular army officers, and mutual profit has resulted. Those in charge of the camp, from Captain Halstead Dorey, the commander, and the Adjutant, Capt. Gordon Johnston, all down

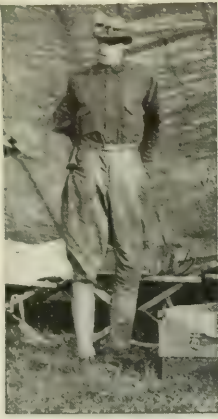
the line, were soldiers and gentlemen of the highest type, whose instruction was courteously and efficiently given.

The success achieved at Plattsburg was highly gratifying to General Wood, as well as to everyone else who had opportunity for observation. It is worth noting that while attendance at this camp did not increase the obligation of the men to any future service with the colors, their spirit was such that there can be no doubt of their willingness to serve in time of need.

WHY THIS CAMP?

The thing grew from a very small beginning. A few men, becoming interested in our lack of preparation, were eager to secure some military instruction. General Wood gladly consented to help them, making the provision that they should gather a company of at least 75 or 100. He would doubtless have been gratified if no more than this number had turned out. After the movement had started, however, enthusiasm grew rapidly, and when the time came to start for Plattsburg over a thousand applications for enrollment had been received.

These men did not leave their affairs to attend the camp for pleasure, or for the novelty of the thing. Probably any of them would have chosen other methods for mere



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W. STUYVESANT CHANLER, HAMILTON FISH, JR.,
AND REGIS H. POST, EX-GOVERNOR OF PORTO RICO



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GEORGE WHARTON PEP-
PER, OF PHILADELPHIA



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A GROUP INCLUDING J. H. LOWELL, OF BOSTON, AND
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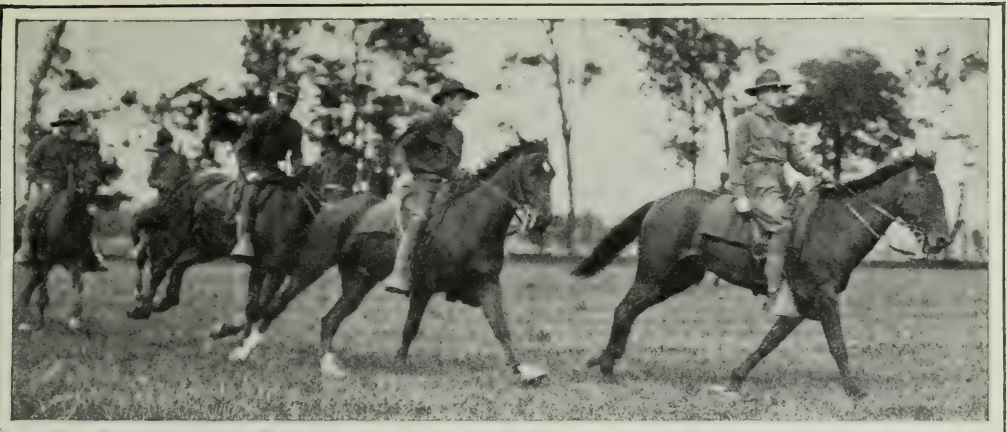
J. W. PICKERING, OF
BOSTON, THE OLDEST
"ROOKIE" (AGE 67)



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(1) ARTHUR WOODS, POLICE COMMISSIONER OF NEW
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RHINELANDER WALDO,
EX-COMMISSIONER OF
NEW YORK POLICE



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

MAYOR MITCHEL OF NEW YORK, LEADING A CAVALRY CHARGE

summer recreation. Some of them had already had their outings. Others gave up vacations to enlist in the camp. To all of it meant the giving up of a twelfth of a year's time. And what was the meaning of it all? Why did they do this thing? To fit themselves for service to their country in time of need. To make of themselves efficient units in a system of national defense. One eminent member of the camp,—who had brought two sons with him,—said he was there as a personal protest against our condition of unpreparedness. The men generally felt the same way. They were convinced of the necessity of putting the country in a better state of preparation for defense, and were willing to contribute their share of personal service promptly toward that end. They were not the kind who are ignorant of conditions either here or abroad. Intelligent and efficient, they were men who are used to going at a problem in a direct way, to achieve maximum results with a minimum expenditure of time. They saw a problem and applied themselves personally, promptly, and practically to its solution. The camp, in its spirit and methods, furnished a lesson in efficiency for the development of our nation's program of defense.

It is now fairly well known that the need of the country is not only for a

larger navy and a larger mobile army, but for more reserves, more equipment of all kinds, and for the systematizing of our transportation and supply forces. We need a system of military training that will give us a sufficiently large body of reserves and will provide for the raising of volunteers when the actual need arises.

FALLACY OF THE VOLUNTEER SYSTEM

The plan prepared by the General Staff in 1912, and approved by the Secretary of War, calls for a force of 500,000 men, regulars and state militia, and in addition for the raising of 300,000 volunteers. Once such a plan is provided, the volunteers can be raised at

need, and they will be forthcoming when the call is issued. General Wood is assured of this, and has only the highest praise for the loyalty of the American volunteer, in spite of a false impression to the contrary. It is not the *volunteer*, or the *volunteer spirit* that General Wood decries. The thing condemned is the *volunteer system*, that leaves everything to be done at the last moment,—the idea that when the fire has already broken out, there is time enough to organize your brigade, skirmish about for hose, commandeer a cart, seek your water connections, and try to put your fire out. Even our volunteer fire departments do not work on



CAPT. R. C. BOLLING OF THE MACHINE-GUN TROOP (RIGHT)

this plan. Their apparatus has all been provided in advance and is ready for the call.

Similarly our military plans should be prepared in advance, the system duly worked out. The regular army should be enlarged immediately, with sufficient men for garrisoning our outlying possessions and the coast defenses, besides a reasonable force as a mobile army within the country. The raising of the volunteers may be left until the crisis comes. But the thing that cannot be left until that particular moment is the providing of officers to train these volunteers. Officers must be developed in time of peace, so as to be ready to take the million or so of Mr. Bryan's "between sunrise and sunset volunteers," and turn them from a disorganized, helpless mob into an effective machine. To leave the training of the officers to the last minute means the wanton sacrifice of the volunteers in the first shock of battle,—“deliberate murder by the nation,” as a great soldier termed it. There is a pathetic, warning note in the recent words of an Englishman whose son was sent to Flanders after only three months' training and was killed in action. Said he: “All the men of my family have been either in the army or the navy, and I am proud of that fact. The only thing I regret is that my boy did not have even a sporting chance.”

THE IMPERATIVE NEED OF OFFICERS

This, therefore,—the providing of officers for the training of men,—is the great purpose of such institutions as the Plattsburg camp of last month. To officer properly the million and a quarter volunteers that would probably be called for in a case of sudden need,—and modern war is sudden, with the aggressor well prepared,—would require some 40,000 officers. The sources of supply

for such officers are now limited. Retired military men who are still young enough to serve will furnish some, though not many. Those who have qualified through examinations and whose names are listed by the War Department, form another source, also limited. The military schools of high standing can supply a number. Then there are the agricultural and mechanical colleges which, under the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862, receive government aid on condition that they provide military courses. But the military instruction in these institutions is variable in amount and quality. It needs to be standardized. When this is done a large number of officers may be obtained from them.

All these sources, properly regulated by the government and under control of the War Department, will assure a regular annual supply of volunteer officers. But Congressional action is needed, and it is hoped this will be forthcoming as a result of the increasing interest in the subject of our national defenses.

Meanwhile, this camp of business and professional men at Plattsburg shows the temper of a portion of our citizens, and their determination to discharge their obligation to their country. The word obligation, by the way, needs emphasis, for it is an obligation, as General Wood has pointed out; not a merely voluntary affair, a free-will offering, but a debt to the nation, a blood tax as real as any other tax.

This highly successful Plattsburg experiment, the first camp of its kind in the country, was held under the auspices of the Eastern Department of the United States Army. It is gratifying to note that the Western Department has planned a similar camp for the coast, to open about the first of this month at the Presidio, at San Francisco.



THE EVENING LECTURE TO THE MEN MASSED IN A SEMICIRCLE, ON THE GROUND

GERMANY'S GREAT SWEEP EASTWARD

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. WHY GERMANY WENT EAST

THE first phase of the Great War has long ago become clear in the mind of all observers. In August of last year the whole German military machine was directed against France with the purpose of eliminating the Republic from the conflict in the first six weeks. The failure at the Marne was followed by the repulse on the Yser. Not only was Germany unable to get a decision in her first campaign, but she lost much of the territory occupied by her troops in the first great advance.

More than this, as recent reports begin to make clear, Germany not only missed a decision, but she lost the great chance to occupy the Channel ports of France and thus obtain a base for her attacks upon Great Britain. When the main effort had been checked at the Marne and German troops were safe behind the Aisne, there came the second and last effort in the west, the drive at Calais, which was stopped at Ypres. With this drive German offensive operations in the west ended. The great deadlock was an accomplished fact after November 1, and the last shots of the Battle of Ypres were fired on November 15.

Meantime the whole face of the situation had changed. Austria had failed utterly in her mission. Hers was the duty to hold to Russia, while Germany disposed of France. For six weeks the Hapsburg armies were to hold back the Czar's masses. But in four, the Austrian armies had been routed and were fleeing from Lemberg to the San. Germany had not in six weeks disposed of France, but long before this time was up Russia was well along in the work of disposing of Austria.

It is well, then, to fix on November 1 as approximately the date when Germany decided to turn east, to reverse her program and, while holding back French and British troops in the west, strive to eliminate Russia. In the meantime, early in October, she had sent troops from the west to aid the Aus-

trians and Von Hindenburg's first drive at Warsaw, made with a relatively small force and a raid rather than a serious bid for decision, had temporarily relieved the pressure upon the beaten Austrians and held up the Russian advance toward Cracow and the Carpathians.

Successful in postponing Austrian disaster, Hindenburg's first campaign demonstrated clearly that Russia was becoming too formidable to be left to Austria. Austria, too, had become far too weak to be relied upon for any great feat of arms in the future, except when her armies should be reorganized by Germans and her masses stiffened by German contingents.

In December, then, we have the first of the long series of German operations in the East, which were designed to bring about a decision in this field. For,—note the unity and consistency of German thought as revealed in her strategy,—it was essential that Germany should get a decision over one of her foes, before they could collectively beat her down. What she had tried to do against France, it was now even more essential that she should accomplish against Russia. She had planned to bring her victorious armies west from France to destroy Russia. She must now fight a campaign to release all her eastern armies for use against the Allies in the west.

Thus, in a military sense we are witnessing to-day the closing operations in the second phase of the war. Germany's second bid for a decision is at the critical point. Within the next few weeks we shall know whether the decision that was not to be had in the west has been attained in the east and the victory lost at the Marne has been retrieved at the Vistula.

In view of the importance of the eastern operation, in view of the obvious fact that it constitutes the most colossal military operation of modern war, in numbers, in extent of territory, in strategic combinations, I purpose to devote most of my comment for this month to a slightly detailed review of



FIELD OF THE TEUTONIC ADVANCE AGAINST RUSSIA

To guard against such an attack Russia had long ago fortified the front of these two sides of the triangle. On the north nature had done much to aid the engineers, and the Niemen, Bobr, and Narew rivers, with surrounding swamps, made a prime military obstacle, which was strengthened by fortresses at various points. Kovno, Ossowetz, Lomza, Ostrolenka, Rozan, and Novo Georgievsk in a line from east to west covered the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad, along the whole face of the East Prussian frontier, whence a German attack might be expected.

the eastern campaign and leave to another number the discussion of other phases of the war, as yet wholly insignificant by contrast.

II. THE EASTERN BATTLEFIELD

At the outset of such a discussion it is necessary, once more, to recall the main features of the geography of the eastern battlefield as it affects the military operations. Russian Poland, extending into the territory of the Central Powers, forms a gigantic salient, is more or less suggestive of a big rubber ball held in the mouth of a dog. The upper teeth are supplied by East Prussia, the lower by Galicia.

The military geography is quite different from the political. This may be indicated by the lines of the Petrograd-Warsaw and Kiev-Warsaw railroads, which form the sides of a great triangle, of which Warsaw is the apex. Only so long as these railroads were in Russian hands could Russia hold Warsaw. If these railroads could be cut, while the mass of the Russian armies were about Warsaw, that is west of the points where the lines were cut, then they might be enveloped, captured, or at the least, driven in a confused mass eastward through the gap between the invaders coming north and south.

On the south, the Kiev-Warsaw railroad is covered for a long distance by the Vistula River. Ivangorod, at the great bend of the Vistula, was strongly fortified. A hundred miles southeast of Ivangorod begin the great Pinsk marshes, which offer a serious military obstacle, and the roads into this district are covered by the fortresses of Lusk, Rowno, and Dubno. But in this gap between the Vistula and the swamps there is no fortified post. Lublin and Cholm, the stations on the Kiev railroad in this district, are open towns. This Lublin gap, then, is the weak joint in the Russian armor.

Now behind this first line of fortifications, covering the Warsaw triangle, the Russians have been recently constructing a second line. This runs due south from Kovno on the Niemen, behind the Niemen to Grodno, then south through Brest-Litowsk to the Pinsk marshes at Kovel. This new line is the base of the Warsaw triangle. In making this second line the Russians paid most attention to Brest-Litowsk, which is due east of Warsaw and at the point of intersection of the Moscow-Warsaw railroad, and the line from the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad at Bielo-stock to the Kiev-Warsaw line at Kovel.

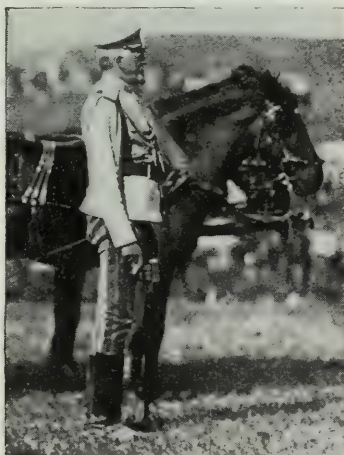
In making her plans a few years ago Russia announced that her mobilization would take place on the Brest-Litowsk line, instead



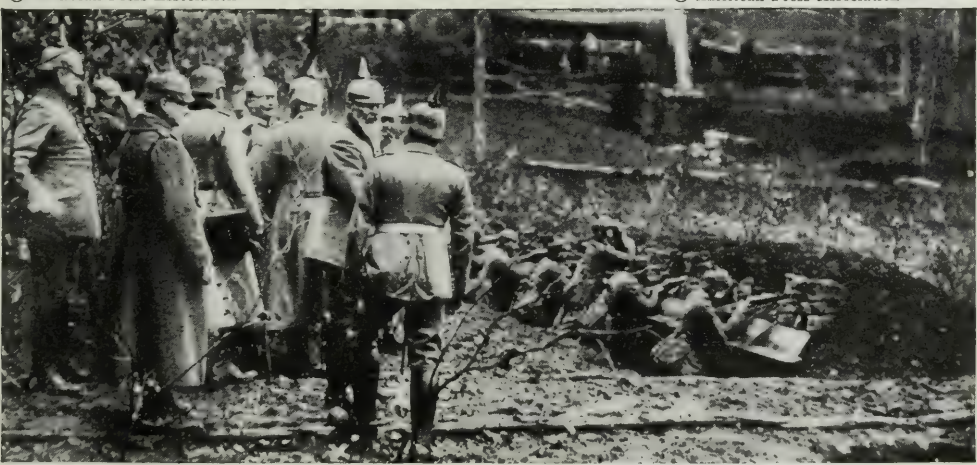
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THE BIG PERSONALITIES IN THE GREAT STRUGGLE ON THE EASTERN FRONT

TOP PICTURE: The German Emperor (center); beside him, to the right, General von Seect, Chief of the General Staff of Mackensen's army; the tall figure on the right is General Mackensen. CENTER ROW: General von Bulow; Grand Duke Nicholas, Commander of the Russian armies; Field-Marshal von Hindenburg. BOTTOM PICTURE: Prince Leopold, of Bavaria, who entered Warsaw at the head of the German forces, with his staff on the Eastern front (the Prince is facing this way, and has a beard).

of about Warsaw. This roused French protest and the plans were subsequently modified. But it is worth recalling that Russia years ago recognized that the Polish salient¹ was a dangerous thing to defend and had already contemplated abandoning it in the opening days of the conflict.

With these few geographical facts in mind it is now possible to indicate the situation. If the Polish salient were attacked at the same time by armies coming north out of Galicia and striking at the Lublin gap and south out of East Prussia aiming at the fortresses opposite the Lublin gap on the Narew River, notably Ostrolenka, Ossowetz, and Lomza, then the line of retreat of all the Russian armies to the east would be threatened, and if the attack were completely successful might be cut off, as by a pair of pincers.

On the other hand an isolated attack from the north or from the south would carry no deadly peril, because, even if the northern or southern rail lines were cut, there was room and there were railroads available for retreat from Warsaw, if the invader could not be checked. We shall see presently how the single thrusts failed and how the first combined north and south thrust broke in the whole Polish salient and compelled the withdrawal to the second line of defense, which is the Brest-Litowsk line.

III. FIRST EFFORTS

Very early in the progress of the war, while the attention of the world was fixed upon the western field, Berlin and Vienna bulletins began to chronicle successful operations in the district just south of Lublin. An Austrian success at Krasnik in the last week of August, 1914, was made much of in Berlin, but promptly thereafter forgotten. Now what actually happened was that an Austrian army had been mobilized quickly and thrust north at the Lublin gap. Its mission was to break in the south side of the Polish salient, cut the Warsaw-Kiev railroad at Lublin and advance against the Warsaw-Moscow line at Siedlce, west of Brest-Litowsk.

This ambitious strategical venture collapsed, when the Russians, sending their masses into Galicia east of Lemberg, routed the Austrian armies about the Galician capital and began to flow west toward the San. This put them in the rear of the Austrian armies at or near Lublin and these forces

escaped only by a retreat which ended in something approaching a panic-stricken flight. This was the first try of the Central Powers at the Polish salient.

Russian strategy now disclosed a vastly ambitious purpose. It set out to abolish the Polish salient by a double invasion. East Prussia and Galicia were both to be taken at the same moment and the Russian military front carried to the Vistula, from the Thorn to Dantzig, and to the Carpathians from Cracow to Rumania. Could this plan be carried out Russia would then have to maintain only a straight line from the mouth of the Vistula to the Rumanian frontier. All danger incident to the Polish salient would be abolished.

But the Prussian victory of Tannenberg destroyed one half of this scheme. East Prussia was not occupied. The upper of the two millstones remained poised above Poland. On the other hand the Galician operation was uniformly successful, and by April Russia had carried her military front west from the Polish frontier to the Carpathians. There was now no Polish salient. Rather there was an East Prussian salient, between Poland and the Baltic. Again and again Russia had attempted to crush in this salient, but the defeat of the Mazurian Lakes had confirmed the decision of Tannenberg and put an end to these efforts.

On the other hand the same period had seen successive failures of the Germans to operate against the apex and the northern side of the Polish salient. The bloody struggle about Lodz, in November, had merely carried the Germans to the Bzura line, where the real military front of the Russians began. Time and again Mackensen and Hindenburg had attempted to break through the Kovno-Novo Georgievsk barrier, but every effort had failed.

By March it was plain to the world, as it probably had been much earlier to the German high command, that the invasion of Poland could only succeed when it was made through Galicia, that the Lublin gap was the one vulnerable point in the Polish salient and this was to be reached only through Galicia and after Lemberg had been retaken. At the same time there was equally patent the hopelessness of any Russian effort to beat down the East Prussian salient. Russia had therefore transferred her masses to the Carpathians and in April was striving to break through the mountains into Hungary, having at last captured Przemyśl and its great garrison.

¹As a military term, the noun "salient" signifies simply a projecting angle.



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THE GREAT RUSSIAN RETREAT

In this picture, received in the United States late in August, can be seen a Russian column in orderly retreat from Galicia, while the peasants, in their picturesque costumes, stand by as interested observers.



Photograph by Paul Thompson.

ON THE TRAIL OF THE RUSSIAN ARMIES

A German pontoon bridge thrown across a Russian stream, during the pursuit of the Grand Duke's forces.

In March the second great crisis of the war arrived. The first had been in the Battle of the Marne. Had the British been able at this time to put Kitchener's million in the field, amply munitioned for an offensive, the Germans would have been unable to concentrate all their troops just coming out of training-camps in the east. An Anglo-French offensive would have demanded attention. Again, had the ill-starred Dardanelles campaign succeeded, Russia might have received some of the ammunition, the lack of which was to cost her dearly in the next few weeks.

But the Allied chance was lost, mainly, if not wholly by British unreadiness. A preliminary attack by the Germans about Ypres disclosed the British weakness, a number of French attacks were beaten down from Alsace to Artois. Germany was free to make her great bid for a decision against Russia. She was bound to make it in Galicia, because of the impregnability of the northern defenses of Poland. Thus about May 1, there breaks out that tremendous engagement along the Dunajec-Biala line which is the prelude to the march to Warsaw.

IV. FROM THE DUNAJEC TO THE VISTULA

Under the storm of the attack of Mackensen the Russian line along the Dunajec melted into rapid flight. There was here something of a rout which for the moment imperilled the whole Russian mass along the Carpathians. For a week the world watched to see if the Grand Duke would succeed in extricating his Carpathian armies from between the pincers, which were supplied by Mackensen's army moving eastward through Galicia and the Austrian troops coming north through the passes.

The Russian commander succeeded, although his losses were tremendous. Then came the second problem: Could the advance be arrested along the San and the Dniester? If the Russians could hold the line from Ivangorod on the Vistula to Przemyśl, then the Lublin gap was still closed. But the Russian ammunition again failed. Przemyśl was retaken, then Lemberg. Galicia had been reconquered. A thin line of Russians hung on east of Lemberg, but the beaten masses were going north into the Lublin gap, followed by Mackensen.

In a word the Polish salient was now restored. The conditions of the opening days of the war were reproduced. The time

had come when an Austrian army could again be driven north toward Lublin, toward the Warsaw-Kiev railroad. At the same time Hindenburg in East Prussia was again in the field striking south against Ossowetz, Ostrolenka, and Lomza. The Russian position had become that of a nut between the jaws of a cracker. The masses holding Warsaw and the lines along the Bzura-Rawka were threatened a hundred miles in their rear by a double thrust.

Two separate phases are to be noted in what followed and they are marked by the successive speculations of all military observers, first as to whether the Grand Duke could now hold on at Warsaw; second, whether he could bring his armies safely out of the net that was spread for him. The answer to the first speculation came, as it was bound to come, from the south. If the armies which had been driven out of Galicia could be rallied and were able to stand south of the Warsaw-Kiev railroad, the Polish salient was safe. But they failed. Desperate fighting, and a clear defeat for the Austrian wing of the armies coming north, were of no permanent avail.

Before the German and Austrian armies touched the Kiev line at Lublin, thus penetrating the gap, the world knew that the Polish salient was lost. Then came the great question. Could the Grand Duke extricate himself, could he get away as Joffre had escaped in August, when the defeats at Mons and Charleroi seemed to insure enveloping disaster? Would he fail as Lee had failed from Richmond to Appomattox? If he failed, the main Russian military force might be enveloped completely, but what was more likely was that it would lose its artillery and its organization, and be driven east into the swamps as a disorganized mass.

All now depended upon two things: (1) The ability of the troops still holding the northern side of the triangle to hold on against Hindenburg, (2) the ability of the troops on the south, now coming north from Lublin and Cholm, to retard Mackensen until the masses from Warsaw were safely east of the closing pincers. There began now from Kovno to Novo Georgievsk the most intense fighting of the whole campaign, while the struggle about Lublin was hardly less terrific.

Yet when these lines are written, after the middle of August, there is every evidence that the Russian escape has been completed and that the armies of Hindenburg and Mackensen have been held back, as one would hold

back the jaws of a dog. The evacuation of Warsaw was completed with no sign of haste, German bulletins disclosed none of the huge captures which were so frequent in Galicia and in the other successful operations. Kovno and Ossowetz long held out and Kovno was only taken on August 17. Lomza, Ostrolenka, and Rozan have been occupied, but only after time sufficient to enable the troops to the south to escape. Novo Georgievsk has been invested and cut off; but apparently its garrison has been sacrificed as Joffre sacrificed that of Maubeuge and for a similar reason. The Russian fortress commands the Vistula as Maubeuge commands the Paris-Liège railway, the main line of German transport. North of Lublin and Cholm, Mackensen has made almost no progress. By the time this magazine is published the fact will unquestionably be established; but as it stands to-day, Russian success in escaping destruction seems unmistakable.

V. IN COURLAND

But while the Warsaw operation was still going forward, a new German offensive in Courland claimed attention. The combined naval and land operation against Libau had appeared at first rather as an effort to divert Russian forces and expand the field of Russian apprehension than as a serious attempt, having a close relation to the campaign to the south.

The extension of this operation in the latter days of July and the first fortnight of August, however, began to suggest that it was in fact, either a part of the whole eastern operation and designed as a very wide turning movement, or else the beginning of a new drive, aimed at Petrograd. The forces under Bülow, who commanded here, were sufficient to sweep back the local troops. In the second week in August an attack upon Riga by the German fleet was noted, while the German armies occupied Mitau and the civilian population fled east. But the fleet was repulsed and a Russian counter-offensive regained Mitau.

Meantime the military observers saw in the movement a possible effort to swing by the north around the Russian right, above Kovno and Vilna, cut the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad far north of the Brest-Litowsk line, interpose between the main Russian forces and the capital, and compel them to continue their retreat beyond their second line.

Coincident with this development the main

German offensive seemed to be shifting to the north, and there was plain suggestion that Hindenburg gave his chief attention to the reduction of the fortress of Kovno, the northernmost post in the Brest-Litowsk line. With the capture of Kovno the Germans are able to move east and beyond the flank of the Russians to the south and there is beginning to develop another salient, with even greater peril to the Russians than the abandoned Polish salient, since it is protected on the north by no line of forts such as had long maintained the Polish salient intact. The fall of Kovno also opens a gap between the Russian armies in Courland and in Poland. A thrust at the Petrograd-Brelostok railroad at Vilna becomes probable. It is the first serious consequence of Russian retreat and the first considerable German success since the Polish capital was occupied.

As to the possibility of an advance upon Petrograd along the shores of the Baltic and the Gulf of Finland, this seemed contingent upon the success of the Warsaw operation still uncompleted and the situation in the west and in the Balkans. The threat of such a blow might serve as one more warning to Russia to give over the struggle, the similar threat this operation constituted to the main Russian armies on the Brest-Litowsk line might necessitate a further retreat, compelling the Russians to go behind the lines of the Pripet swamp and thus to disappear as a serious factor for many months to come. In the present situation the latter seems the more reasonable explanation.

In sum, it is reasonable to suppose that German strategy had in mind two objects. The first and far more grandiose was the disposing of Russia. On getting a decision in the east, Germany had risked a larger part of all the reserves that it is conceivable there remained to her. She had resigned the offensive in the west, giving Great Britain at least four months to bring on her armies and develop her munitions factories. A similar respite had been granted to the French. The risk that these western foes might be able to take the offensive successfully, Germany seems to have discounted safely.

But if the decision escaped her, then Germany could at the least occupy lines as advantageous to her as were those that she took after the Marne. The line of the Niemen, the Vistula, and the Dniester could be held with far fewer men than the old front; the menace to Austria would be abolished; the battle would be fought on Russian territory; the Poles might be enlisted in the armies of

the Central Powers. Such results would be far from the decision hoped for and sought, but would show real profit,—a profit calculated to satisfy German public opinion and give Germany still more hostages for the negotiations for peace that might come.

Yet to occupy Poland at the cost of half a million casualties,—added to an equally large number in Galicia and doubled by the Austrian casualties in the same campaigns,—and not eliminate Russia, might prove in the end a German defeat. This, unless Russia could be persuaded to make peace while her armies, although undestroyed, were heavily beaten and a large sweep of her territories occupied. Inescapably, the conclusion forces itself upon the observer that the chief purpose of the eastern campaign was to get peace with Russia, by the destruction of the Russian army, by the conquest of Russian territory,—by either or by both. If this should fail (and a few weeks must decide this), Warsaw might prove another Antwerp,—a brilliant military feat, barren of any but local consequences.

VI. RUSSIAN STRATEGY

It remains now to glance at Russian strategy in the recent critical operations. We have seen that Russia's first effort was to beat down both the East Prussian and the Galician menaces to Poland. This was given over, after the defeat of the Mazurian Lakes; and Russia endeavored, while containing the German troops from the Pilitza to the Niemen, to dispose of Austria, to break into Hungary and to force the Hapsburg Monarchy to a separate peace in order to escape destruction.

The disaster along the Dunajec put an end to all Russian offensive strategy. For the time the sole possibility was to rescue imperilled armies. Russian ammunition had failed. There was no prospect for the present of renewing it. As in Manchuria, so in Galicia, after disaster Russian military genius shone forth in a brilliant retreat. The retreat from Galicia began as something approximating a rout. It ended in an orderly withdrawal.

The decision to retreat from Poland seems to have been determined by the pressure of Mackensen on the south, but there is at least some ground for believing that it was determined in Galicia and that the Grand Duke recognized then that long retreats were inevitable. At all events after the first defeat in Galicia Russian strategy is no longer

to be mistaken. Russia has adopted precisely the same policy by which she ultimately ruined Napoleon.

Thus the German official reports relate that as the Russians retire they are burning the crops, laying waste the country, turning provinces into deserts, driving the population before them. This is 1812 over again. But what is of most interest is to recognize that the Russians have clung to the main idea that it is essential to keep their armies in being. They have declined to risk their armies in a dangerous defensive. They have followed the famous strategy of their ancestors. They have copied the method of Joffre last year, when he gave the Germans northern France to save the French armies. They expect to regain their lost provinces, when they obtain ammunition and restore their broken organizations.

In all this there is unmistakable the Russian conviction that the Germans can be beaten only by attrition; that the war is to be long and the decision to come only after the enemy has been exhausted. To fight to the last moment of safety, to retreat and to fight again, to exact the last possible casualty, but to keep their armies intact, to go back more miles if necessary, but never to let Germany get the supreme profit out of her present material and human superiority,—this is the sum of Russian strategy as disclosed in recent months. And it is the kind of strategy that defeated Napoleon.

More and more, too, the war is assuming a Napoleonic character. The coming of Italy recalled to the whole world the circumstances of 1813. Thereafter Napoleon's real hope lay in making peace; and history records his many vain efforts to divide his enemies in the closing months of his empire. Now Germany has sought by victory to eliminate first France and then Russia. She failed in France, has she failed in Russia? Certainly nothing in the Russian situation suggests yet that Russia has been eliminated or is ready to give over the struggle. Maximilien Harden has warned his countrymen against such a delusion in one of his last published comments. Religious, dynastic, racial influences all point the other way for him.

Yet well-informed German opinion has expected a termination of the war this fall: a quick drive at the west after a complete triumph in the east. Is this possible? The answer must be found in the facts about the Warsaw drive not yet established. But there still remains the problem whether the Germans, even though Russia is practically put



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RUSSIAN ARTILLERY RETREATING BEFORE THE GERMANS

(The success of the Russians in saving their heavy artillery was one of the marvels of the campaign)

out for some months, can bring sufficient troops west to obtain a decisive advantage in numbers over the French and English.

Russian strategy, French strategy, Allied strategy, as a whole, has each come down to a single purpose. Peace is a thing far off, to be had when Germany has been bled white. Provinces and cities are details, casualty lists are all important. Victory can be had only when 8,000,000 Germans have been put out of the game by death, disability, or capture. So in our war the North defeated the South; Europe defeated Napoleon; Rome overcame Hannibal. This is the view of Petrograd, Paris, London, Rome. It explains, for the Allies, Russian retreats. It may be right or wrong, but it is the foundation of all Allied policy and faith.

VII. THE BALKANS

Russian defeat exercised a curious and unforeseen influence upon the various Balkan states. The world was surprised when Rumania failed to follow the example of Italy, and lost the best chance imaginable for laying hands upon Bukovina and Transylvania. Had Rumania entered the war in May, the

Warsaw campaign would have been impossible.

But,—Warsaw fallen,—there was prompt stirring in the Balkans. The reason was plain. While Russia was successful, but still not able to get a complete decision over Austria, Rumania, Greece, and Bulgaria could afford to wait. If Austria were crushed, their ambitions might be realized, for it was Austria and not Russia which sought to retain Rumanian populations in Transylvania and Bukovina and to come south to the Egean. Austria out of the way, the prizes might be had for the taking.

But a victorious Austria was a different question. To Rumania it meant the end of the long-cherished *risorgimento*. To Greece it meant the loss of Salonica and southern Macedonia. To Bulgaria it meant that Turkey would be restored to strength and Bulgaria be caught between two German allies, while Austrian advance down the Vardar valley would close the dream of a restored Macedonia.

Accordingly Rumania speedily gave evidence of her sentiments by closing her frontiers to German ammunition sent to Turkey. An unfriendly act in the eyes of the Ger-

mans, this decision was accepted as a final evidence of Rumanian leanings.

Next the Bulgarian Premier gave the world a frank statement of the price which Bulgaria demands for her participation in the war, but pledged that twenty-four hours after payment Bulgar armies would be on their way to Adrianople and Chatalja. The price was high. All of Serbian Macedonia, Greek Macedonia east of the Struma, including Kavala, Seres, and Drama, the Rumanian stealings about Silistria. In a word the Treaty of Bucharest is to be torn up.

To these terms Allied diplomats implored Greek, Serb, and Rumanian to yield. Meantime German troops were gathering on the Danube, German newspapers were proclaiming the approach of a new offensive, an attempt to "hack a way" through Serbia and open the road for ammunition to Turkey. Plainly the Balkan crisis had come. The decision cannot be long delayed, for a successful German offensive will terminate the freedom of Serbia; make Bulgaria a mere pawn in the hands of the diplomacy which rules in Constantinople, Vienna, and Berlin, and which plans to eliminate Serbia. Rumania will have to put away all dreams of Balkan supremacy, and may have to pay dearly for contumacy in the matter of ammunition. As for Greece, she has refused Kavala to the Bulgar. Can she keep Salonica from the Austro-German?

The return of Venizelos to power, the meeting of the Serb and Greek Parliaments, the new Allied efforts at Gallipoli, these are circumstances of the immediate present when these lines are written. But on the surface the ancient hatreds seem to leave the Balkan states immobilized in the face of a new and common peril. Greece and Serbia cling to their Macedonian spoils. The entrance of the Balkan states, the restoration of the old Balkan alliance, would seal the fate of Turkey and add new perils to Austria. But the success of Austrian diplomacy, two years ago in dividing the conquerors of the Turk seems to remain a permanent advantage to Vienna.

If Germany can keep the Balkan states neutral she will have won a diplomatic victory counterbalancing that won by the Allies at Rome. But defeat here will be more expensive than that in the Italian capital. For, the fall of Constantinople is an event far more important to the issue of the war than the capture of Warsaw without the Russian army. One of the most dramatic circumstances in the whole struggle is now supplied by the Balkan crisis. The solution may

not settle the war, but if the Allies are defeated it will materially lengthen it, and may save the Turk for many months or even years.

Rarely in human history has there been a more striking contrast than that supplied by the fortunes of Bulgaria two years ago and to-day. Then, she was beaten and forsaken, a pariah among the Balkan pariahs. To-day Bulgarian decision is awaited in every capital of Europe with the intensest concern, and the rulers of all the Great Powers are bidding against each other for Bulgarian favors. Even "Czar" Ferdinand's chagrin at missing that triumphal entrance into Byzantium and the world-filling ceremony at Saint Sophia must be partially forgotten to-day, when no king is too great to do him homage.

VIII. AT THE DARDANELLES

In that brilliant first report of Sir Ian Hamilton, which still furnishes most of all that the world knows about the Dardanelles campaign, the Allied commander supplied an admirable figure for illustrating the Gallipoli peninsula. The portion which has so far seen fighting he compared to a well-worn boot, poised above the Dardanelles.

Accepting this figure it is easy to explain the whole progress of events. In the last days of April the main Allied force was flung ashore at the extreme end of the Gallipoli peninsula, the toe of the boot. Its objective were the forts commanding the narrowest point in the Dardanelles, which are under the heel and about the village of Kilid Bahr.

From the toe, which is little over a mile wide, between Cape Hellas and the village and forts of Sedul Bahr, along the sole of the boot to Kilid Bahr is less than ten miles. This is the extreme limit of advance necessary to clear the road to Constantinople, for above Kilid Bahr the Dardanelles widen and are not heavily fortified.

The landing operation was difficult in the extreme because the earlier naval demonstration had warned the Turks and they had heavily fortified the foreshore. It was accomplished under heavy fire with a loss to the British alone of over 15,000, a casualty list exceeding the number of the whole of Shafter's first expedition to Santiago in 1898.

Once landed, the mission of the Allied forces was to push rapidly up the boot from the toe to the heel. But less than four miles from the toe the advance was halted by the first line of defenses of the Turks, that is, the first field works and heavy entrench-



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ENGLISH NAVAL GUNS BEING LANDED AT CAPE HELLES, THEY ARE COVERED WITH SOLDIERS' COATS TO
HIDE THEM FROM THE AERIAL EYES OF THE ENEMY



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TURKISH PRISONERS ENCAMPED WITHIN A BARB WIRE INCLOSURE AT SEDDIL BAHR

TWO SCENES FROM THE FIGHTING ZONE OF THE DARDANELLES

ments. This is the Achi Baba position which takes its name from the hill rising in the center of the peninsula to a height of 700 feet. This hill is merely the crest of a ridge extending straight across the boot from shore to shore and rising sharply out of the sea on one side and the straits on the other to an elevation of above 400 feet.

On the first day after the landing had been completed the whole of the main force was stopped short before Achi Baba, west of the little town of Krithia. At this point the British ammunition failed in the first rush, after that it became a question of siege work exactly like that in France and Flanders and save for incidental trenches the Allies have gained nothing since.

Meantime, to the northeast, at the point that answers to the ankle of the Gallipoli foot, the Australian and New Zealand contingents were flung ashore between the hill of Gaba Tepe and the Cape of Suvla. Their mission it was to move south, behind the Turkish line of Achi Baba and force the Turks to evacuate it. But this advance was checked even more promptly than the first. Here the hill of Sari Bahr, rising from the beach to a height of 900 feet, proved an impassable barrier. The best the Australians could do was to hold on for many days.

Latterly, in the third week of August, reinforcements were landed at this point and there was some slight progress, but as yet not enough to endanger the Turks at Achi Baba. It would be difficult to exaggerate the heroism shown by the Allied troops as a whole and by the Australian and New Zealand colonials in particular in the landing. The losses were simply terrific and the obstacles well-nigh insurmountable.

But it is now necessary to emphasize the fact that if the troops landed at the ankle about Suvla were able to capture Sari Bahr and push on, they would then encounter the second and stronger Turkish position, that which takes its name from the hill of Pasha Dagh. This position stretches in a wide semi-circle from the Straits above to the same channel below Kilid Bahr. Pasha Dagh itself is over 900 feet in height and the hills that surround it make a thoroughly defensible line, the face toward the enemy broken by deep ravines.

A successful advance by the troops before the Achi Baba line, or by those now before Sari Bahr, would compel the Turks to draw back to the Pasha Dagh position, but this is stronger than the other positions and constitutes the main defensive line of the Turks.

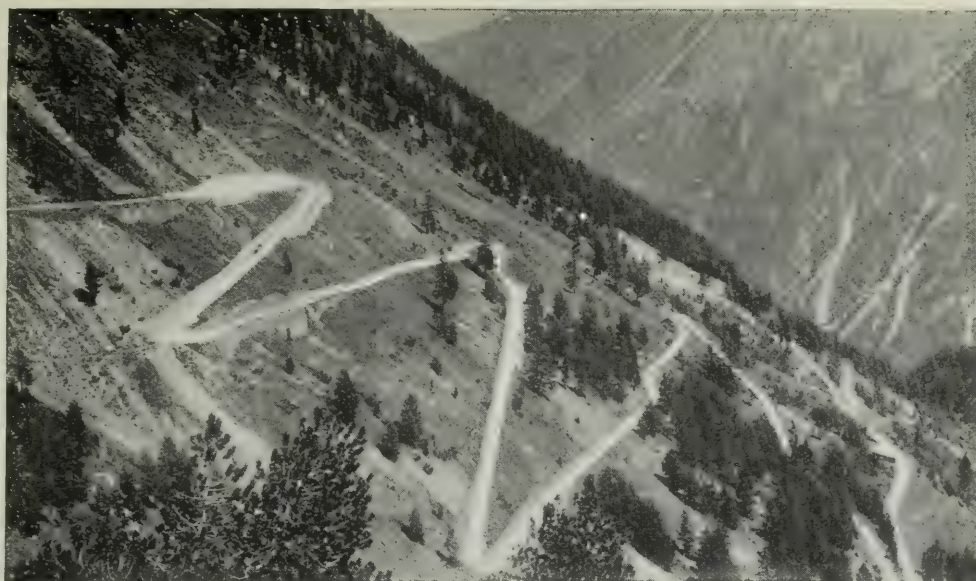
If it should be taken, then the way to Constantinople is open, for the Pasha Dagh ridge dominates the forts at Kilid Bahr and those on the lower-lying Asiatic shore as well. But as yet the Allies have not even driven the Turk into his last and strongest position and in four months have only advanced four of the ten miles that they must cover to win.

Since the front that the Turks have to defend does not exceed six miles,—the Achi Baba front is less than three,—there is only one apparent hope for Allied success. If the Turkish ammunition fails, then victory will be easy. But otherwise the Turk seems to have found another Plevna and can hold on indefinitely.

The failure of ammunition may be due to exhaustion or to the interruption of supply by the cutting of the lines of communication. The Allied submarines have already made water transport hazardous, but the main reason why the intervention of Bulgaria is so eagerly desired is that a Bulgarian army, following the route of the victors of Lule Burgas in 1912, would come down to the Sea of Marmora at Rodosto and thus sever the land line of communications between Constantinople and Gallipoli. A Greek or Italian expedition landed at Enos, north of the Gulf of Saros, and sent east would accomplish the same thing. Hence the effort to enlist Greece.

But as yet there is no promise of Allied success in the Gallipoli peninsula outside of that flowing from the rumors that Turkish ammunition is failing. Military men the world over, Colonel Maude among the well-known British commentators, some of the best-known general officers in the American army, continue to criticize the failure of the Allied fleet to force the Straits in the earlier venture. The example of Farragut in Mobile Bay, they hold, should have been followed and would have proved far less costly in the end.

In sum, we have a deadlock at the Dardanelles, wholly comparable to that in the west, with Allied chances of early victory mainly dependent upon the intervention of Balkan States or the failure of Turkish ammunition. As for the Turks, their work consists in holding on until the Germans can open a way for munitions through the Balkans, either by gold, threats, or actual military operations. Thus far they have been able to perform their part with utmost success and have earned the praise of their enemies alike for their courage and the humanity displayed by them toward their wounded captives.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

STELVIO PASS

(Showing the zig-zag road leading up the side of the mountain)

THE LANDS THAT ITALY WANTS

BY ELBERT FRANCIS BALDWIN

[Of all the zones of war, perhaps the most picturesque country is that included in the Italian "irredenta," the territory which Italy hopes to free from Austrian rule. Mr. Elbert F. Baldwin, the author of the following article, has traveled much in those regions, and writes from an intimate knowledge of every foot of the way.—THE EDITOR.]

THE lands that Italy wants are, first, the Trentino, and second, Goritz, not to mention other ambitions. The region stretching widely about the city of Trent is the Trentino. More than nine-tenths of the people of this region speak Italian, as do also most of the people of Goritz. Why should not Italians wish to unite those regions to the mother country?

THE TRENTINO

Look at a map of Italy. You will note that the Trentino forms a wedge, as if it were driven through the northern border, the "Trentino Salient," as military men call it. This wedge is of distinct strategic value to Austria. Hence, to the reason of language is added another,—the military reason,—to make Italy want it. The wedge is mountainous and therefore strategically is doubly valuable. With Austria commanding these

mountains, Italy is at her mercy. This has already been proved in the present war. A machine gun can guard a whole pass. But if Italy conquers the Trentino she would find the mountain masses along the northern border of that province practically an east-and-west wall.

The one element of danger in the Trentino, then, would be the valley of the Adige, which forms a north-to-south opening. Hence some Italian jingoes, desiring even a still more ideally strategic frontier, have even dared to covet,—further to the north,—a wholly German-speaking region, as great in extent as is the Trentino, so that the Italian northern boundary might rest on the summits of the Alpine main ridge.

As may be surmised from the mountainous character of the Trentino, most of the people are engaged in pastoral pursuits. Agriculture, nevertheless, holds an important



Photograph by Medern

STATUE OF DANTE AT TRENT

place. There are also certain industries, notably silk-spinning.

Milan is an appropriate starting place for a journey through the lands for the possession of which Italy is now fighting Austria. For it was at Milan that the first of the five wars between Italy and Austria broke out. Milan was then Austrian, the capital of the kingdom of Lombardy and Venetia, subject to Hapsburg rule. As in many other cities throughout Europe in that great year of revolution, 1848, so in Milan there was rebellion. It had far-reaching waves, arousing even Naples and Sicily against the Bourbons, and especially causing the peoples of central Italy to rise against their rulers. The source of all this activity came from Piedmont, and Charles Albert, the Piedmontese king, put himself at the head of a movement which, having as its first main object deliverance from the Austrian yoke later became irresistibly a movement to unite Italy. The short war of 1848 was succeeded by the brief struggle of 1849, and that, ten years later, by the still greater war which liberated Lombardy. In 1866 occurred the war which liberated Venetia, and the present conflict may result in the liberation of the Trentino.

THE TONALE PASS

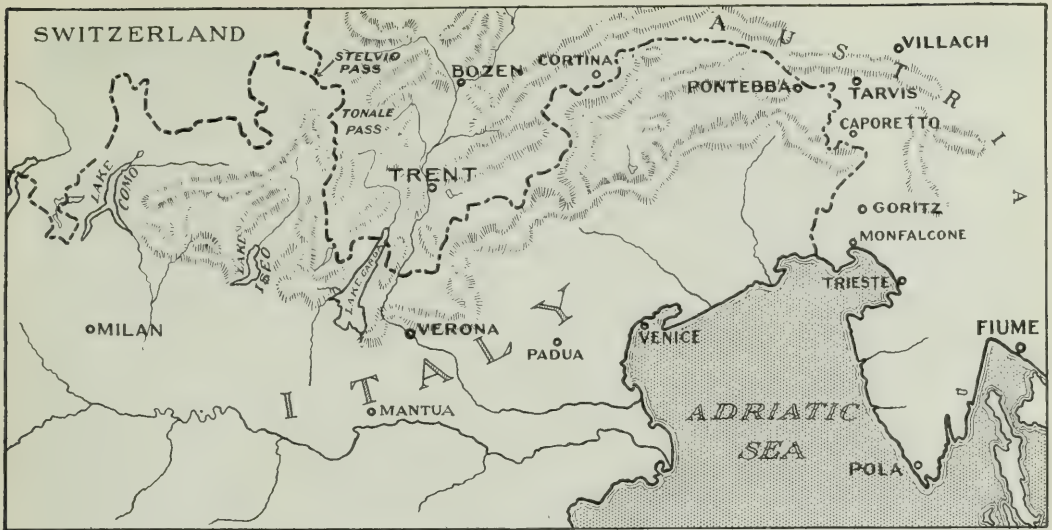
To get an adequate idea of its sublime scenery and of its strategic importance, the traveler in Milan who would journey through the Trentino should not approach it by railway eastward to Verona and then northward. His way lies rather over the Tonale Pass. This important pass has had a reputation for sharp conflicts,—witness 1799, 1808, 1848, and 1866,—and now it has again become prominent by reason of the first fight in the war between Italy and Austria. It took place at Forcellina di Montozzo, a few miles to the north and above the summit of the pass, which marks the international boundary.

I have repeatedly taken two routes to reach the pass from Milan. One is by Iso and the Val Camonica to Edolo. Another way is from Milan to Como, then by steamer up the lake to Colico, by train to Tresenda, and then over the Aprica Pass to Edolo. From Edolo we journey up to the Tonale Pass, which marks the international frontier. The ice-masses of the Ortler group separate the Tonale from the Stelvio; on the other side of the Tonale are the Adamello ice-masses.

Now down the Val Vermiglio, for though we are in Austria after leaving the top of the pass, the Italian language pursues us. Some thirty miles east and south brings us to Madonna di Campiglio, a notable center for excursions among the glaciers of the Adamello Alps, a great mountain fastness in which a small body of troopers could hold out for a long time against larger numbers. Another stretch of some thirty miles east and north, going as far south as Sarche, only a few miles from Arco, with its castle on a dizzy height, just this side of Lake Garda.

FORTIFIED MOUNTAIN FASTNESSES

Much of the country between Lake Garda and the Adige Valley is of extraordinarily interesting character from a military standpoint. It has been of immense help to the Austrians, defended as they are by this great natural fortress which they have honey-combed with tunnels driven through solid rock by means of dynamite and pneumatic drills. The popping of pneumatic drills, in fact, has been reported to be as frequent as that of machine guns during the past few weeks. The Austrians have also mined the overhanging crags, connecting them by wires with rock-hewn branches and tunnels, so that whenever they choose they may loosen



MAP OF THE AUSTRIAN POSSESSIONS COVETED BY ITALY

some huge boulder and send it crashing down to wipe out a detachment of Italians. The stone walls along the outer sides of the mountain roads have been removed in order to give the batteries on the opposite mountain side such a sweep of the road as to make it impossible for the Italians to use them for shelter.

THE CITY OF TRENT

And so we come to Trent, the capital of the Trentino. The name Trent suggests something old. Students think of the Roman Tridentum; they will, also, think of that long church council which took place here from 1545 to 1564, a council of importance in the development of Roman Catholic theology. But just now we do not care so much about the religious prestige of Trent as we do about its political changes. Think how it was controlled in turn by Rhaetian, Roman, Goth, Hun, Ostrogoth, Lombard, Carolingian and the Holy Roman Empire,—which was neither holy nor Roman! In 1027 the Emperor Conrad II granted all temporal powers in the province of the Trentino to the Prince-Bishops of Trent. They governed it until 1813. Then it was annexed by Austria. The year 1915 may mark its annexation by Italy.

The City of Trent, as we look upon it, seems a very modern, solid, attractive community of, say, thirty thousand inhabitants. Modern are its principal hotels, the Imperial and Bristol; modern its street life, accentuated by the military, and modern, too, its industries. But this once noted, one quickly

gets back into other ages. There is the Castello di Buon Consiglio, the residence of the old Prince-Bishops. There is the cathedral, a capital example of Lombard architecture. There is the church of Santa Maria Maggiore, with its red marble campanile; the Council was held in this church. There are those fine old palaces, the Podetti, Zampelli and Tabarelli. There are the old towers,—the Torre Verde, with its roof of green and yellow glazed tiles, and the square Torre Vanza. There is the library, rich in old manuscripts. Finally, standing out in bold relief against the mountain background, there is the fine statue of Dante, reminding us that the great poet knew the Trentino well, as one may note from passages in his "Divine Comedy."

Within sight of Trent to the southeast stands Monte Zugna, fortified by the Austrians and surrounded by wire entanglements and three lines of trenches. The position comprised also two large barracks, reported to have cost \$800,000, and which possessed the most modern equipment. According to the Italian account, an Italian reconnaissance platoon, seeing that the fortifications were undermanned, deployed in several detachments, pretending to be a battalion instead of a contingent of less than 100 men. The Austrian garrison surrendered, and the mountain is said to have been occupied without a single Italian casualty.

THE VALLEY OF THE ADIGE

It is interesting to journey southward down the Adige to those places acquired by

Austria in 1517 from Venice to Rovereto (fifteen miles south of Trent and the southernmost Austrian fortress of importance in the Adige Valley). We pass the historic castle of Lizzana below Rovereto; Dante went to live in this castle after he was banished from Florence. Then we pass three or four miles between the entrenchments on both sides of the river to Mori, and then some six miles through a defile described by Dante, to Ala on the Italian frontier. Italian troops could advance through this defile only by capturing practically every mountain or height, for everything had seemingly become an actual Austrian fortress. Near the frontier, where the Italians occupied one side of a valley and the Austrians the other, the opposing forces have dynamited great shelves in the rock near the summits and there planted their howitzers.

HURLING SHELLS OVER MOUNTAIN TOPS

In this connection, it is interesting to note that while cannon of flat trajectory are in use against all objects in direct lines of fire, in this broken mountain fighting cannon of distinctly curved trajectory must be employed, in order to reach the deep trenches hidden behind the elevations. In trying to overcome Austria's apparently impregnable advantage in the possession of the high mountains, a great deal of wonderfully effective work has been done by the Italians from below in dropping shells on the enemy's batteries or in shooting over mountain peaks 5000 feet high and dropping shells on the enemy's forces on the other side. It is this kind of fighting, indeed, which distinguishes the Italians. Their army, indeed, lacks, first, the immense masses of men in the Russian and Austro-German armies, for instance, and, second, the huge volume of metal which especially distinguishes the German artillery. On the other hand, the Italian army is distinguished by a singularly adroit adaptation to the mountain warfare now upon them. Their lightly equipped *Bersaglieri* and *Alpini* have apparently more of the elasticity and yet toughness of leather than have any corps in any army.

One should also take an eastward journey to the Lake of Caldonazzo, Levico, and especially to the Val Sugana, a strategic region won by the Italians against a brave foe some six weeks after the war began.

But, in particular, one should journey through the northern part of the Trentino, proceeding twenty miles up the Adige and then veering eastward over the splendid Aus-

trian road. Near Vigo di Fassa, what are to me the most striking examples of the Dolomites,—the Rosengarten group,—come into view, clear-cut against the sky.

THE AMPEZZO VALLEY AGAIN ITALIAN

Then over two passes, one of which the Italians have now taken, and we reach the Ampezzo Valley and Cortina. Four centuries ago the valley was Italian and was known as the "Magnifica Comunità Ampezzo." You may still read this title on the coats of arms there. Yet it has remained essentially Italian, as one may gather from its name and from the names of the Cortina hotels,—the Miramonti, the Faloria, the Cristallo, the Croce Bianca and Aquila Nera, for instance. And the other day this valley became in fact again Italian!

We have now crossed the Trentino by way of the Adamello and Fassa Alps. We have the dolomitic Ampezzo Alps in front and around us, and going through them we emerge at the town of Ampezzo itself. At San Vito, six miles from Cortina, we pass into Italy again. Most travelers proceeding eastward, however, seem to prefer to turn from Cortina, northward to Toblach and the valley of the Drave and so to Villach, and Trieste. But I found it more picturesque to proceed along the south instead of the north side of the Carnic Alps, the summit ridge of which marks the boundary between Italy and Austria. Especially as one approaches Pontebba, one passes through a wild and romantic region fitted by Nature to be the scene of the surprise attack on the Austrians by the Italian *Alpini* and the customs' guards advancing over smugglers' trails and surprising the enemy. In this manner the Italians occupied some heights hereabouts on the Austrian side.

GORITZ

Proceeding eastward by the Austrian road from Pontebba to Fort Malborghetto (a hard Austrian nut for the Italians to crack, for they have already sent over a thousand shells against it without much effect) we come to Tarvis, a magnificently situated village. With the inspiring Julian Alps on our left and with some great hills on our right, we can walk, cycle or drive south to Trieste, over a hundred miles away.

The first feature of special interest on this journey is the passage of the Predil Pass. It might form a northern boundary of the land which the Italians want. Then we descend to Plezzo, in the valley of the Isonzo, the



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE ISONZO RIVER, WHERE THE ITALIANS WILL MEET THE AUSTRIANS

river offered by Austria in the negotiations before the present war as the now Italian frontier. But Italy preferred the Julian Alps. No wonder. In some instances their slopes are so steep as only to be taken by surprise night attacks, as that of the *Alpini*, who crawled up, roped together, and carried a machine gun in pieces, strapped to their shoulders.

Now down the stream to Caporetto, captured by Italy during the first days of the war with Austria. That war was declared on May 23rd, 1915. On May 24th, the Italians crossed their eastern border in three places, all of whose names begin with a "C,"—Cervignano, on the Adriatic; Cormons, to the north, and Caporetto, still further to the north. The Austrians fell back and massed their troops at Gradisca, Tolmino and Malborghetto. Caporetto is only 770 feet high, an indication of the rapid descent from the top of the pass. Above Caporetto to the left rises Monte Nero, over 7000 feet high. It dominates the whole valley and was the scene of a strenuous Italian progressive investment during June and July. Progressive, indeed! For the Austrians (a resourceful and redoubtable foe), like the Italians, know the value of placing cannon in

protected tunnels, dynamited to within a foot or so of the surface of the mountain, with a hole drilled through that surface just large enough to afford room for the gun-muzzle.

TOLMINO, WHERE DANTE SOJOURNED

Still further down the stream lies Tolmino, where Dante is supposed to have spent some time; at all events, they show you a castle in which they claim that he wrote some of his "Divine Comedy." But the name Tolmino has a very present significance, for it has been a central contested point between Italy and Austria. It lies half-way down the Isonzo line, along which the Austrians, several hundred thousand strong, have, in general, successfully occupied a front capable of being defended against the greatly superior Italian force, the Austrians being entrenched on the mountains and hills of the Julian Alps. This makes one particular Italian achievement all the more significant. Above Tolmino a regiment of *Bersaglieri* was isolated on the eastern bank when the enemy destroyed three pontoon bridges over which supporting troops were to cross the river. Instead of waiting to be attacked, the *Bersaglieri* flung themselves against the foremost trenches, making it im-

possible for the enemy to plant his guns against them. The *Bersaglieri* held most of the trenches until the pontoon bridges were reconstructed. For this action, Colonel di Rossi, who was in command, was deservedly decorated and promoted to the rank of Major-General.

Eight miles beyond, through the gorge of the Isonzo is Canale, where one welcomes southern vegetation. Three miles farther on is Plava, which the Italians carried at the point of the bayonet. Passing Monte Santo, which may well be ascended for the sake of the fine view, eight miles journey brings us to Goritz, or Görz, or Gorizia, as you like, the capital of the crownland, pleasantly situated on the Isonzo, and guarded by a hill topped by the ruined castle of the old counts of Goritz. Here the traveler sits him down and reflects on the history of a little-known, but interesting, province. It has always been a borderland. The 31,000 inhabitants of the city of Goritz represent the clash of confluence of three races, the Italian, Germanic, and the Slav. The Italian impress predominates, as is proper in a place where over half the population is Italian. Town and province have belonged to Austria since the year 1500. Charles X of France died here, and, half a century later, his grandson, the Comte de Chambord. Their remains lie in a Franciscan convent to the east of the town. The principal industries of the place are silk- and cotton-spinning and the manufacture of liqueurs. Goritz is esteemed as a winter residence, being free from the enervating influence of a resort in more tropical climates.

GRADISCA AND MONFALCONE

We now journey on in the low country through hedge-bordered roads and surrounded by fertile fields some five miles to Gradisca, a name often used with that of Goritz in defining the crownland, indeed, one of the titles of the Austrian emperors is that of Prince-Count of Goritz and Gradisca. The Italians occupied Gradisca a fortnight after the war began. Seven miles farther and we are in Monfalcone, a town of about 6000 inhabitants, close to the Adriatic, which shines before us to the right, while to the left rises that great, bleak, dreary, wind-swept, limestone highland called Carso in Italian (Karst in German) which extends into Croatia. Monfalcone became a familiar name in the newspaper columns by reason of its capture by the Italians early in the war. Its loss was especially disastrous to the Austrians because of the location there of the

electricity plant which supplies Trieste with light and power, of the large shipbuilding yards, and of the laboratory for the manufacture of gases. To the south of Monfalcone, at San Giovanni, the river Timavo, which has lost itself twenty miles back in the grottoes of the Karst, reappears and empties into the Adriatic. There are other subterranean water courses in that highland, which, full of caverns and crevasses, presents extreme difficulty to any invading army and equal protection to any defending army, as the Italians have repeatedly found to their terrible cost. Above us over the brow of the highland are the important railway junctions of Nabresina and Opcina, the scenes of bombardments by Italian dirigibles. About four miles before reaching Trieste and jutting out into the sea is a romantically placed castle, a place of melancholy interest, too, for it was the property of the Emperor Maximilian of Mexico. The Mexican crown was offered to him here in 1864. If he could have looked forward to his execution three years later and the insanity of the Empress Carlotta ever since he might not have been so ready to accept that crown.

TRIESTE

And so, over a superb boulevard, we come to Trieste, far outdistancing Venice in strategic importance, but far behind it, of course, in beauty. The old Roman Tergeste does not disclose, as do most towns in Italy, a Roman origin. There is, indeed, a fine old Roman arch, and there are plenty of antiquities in the museums but Trieste appears distinctly modern. Somehow one thinks of it as not dating further back than 1203, when Venice conquered it and held it for 160 years, or until Leopold of Austria became its overlord. It has remained Austrian ever since, save between 1797 and 1805 and 1809 and 1813, when the French held it. Of the 230,000 inhabitants of Trieste no less than 170,000 are Italian, whereas but 43,000 are Slovene, and 17,000 German. Trieste consists of two parts, a low part bordering the harbor, with well kept, level streets, and a higher and older part with narrow, steep streets, some of which are not possible for wagons.

We looked in vain for the interesting churches which one finds even in the very small Italian towns. To be sure, the cathedral of San Giusto is not uninteresting, for it stands on the site of an old Roman temple, as we may see from the remains in the tower and in the capitals, and furthermore, it is



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THE GRAND CANAL IN TRIESTE

composed of three old early Christian churches. The museums are more interesting. Still more so is the Giardino Pubbico, or the public garden, in which one learns to realize that Trieste is really a border town, that back of it in the Karst lives a population wholly Slav, and apparently ready at any time to descend upon the city and swamp it.

ISTRIA

The same impression comes to him who journeys from Trieste southwest into the suburbs, and so on into the orchards and vineyards, the forests and pasture land of Istria. Here in almost every case a nucleus of Italians forms a strong majority of the inhabitants of each town, except Pola, the most important of all and the great Austrian naval station where the bulk of the Austrian fleet has been cooped up, a stone's throw away from the ruins of the old Roman amphitheatre. Italian dominance might be expected when we remember that, though the Slavs penetrated into Istria in the seventh century, the greater part of the province was included in the dominions of Venice as late as 1797 when Napoleon ended the Venetian Republic. The Istrian rural districts are now almost wholly Slav. And the Slavs are increasing in numbers and strength. They are more prolific than the Italians and are

growing faster in proportion. About three-fifths of the population speak Slav dialects as against only about two-fifths of Italian speaking people. Already the Slavs demand that Croatian be given equal authority with Italian in municipal notices and in the courts, and it seems difficult to resist this demand. In its aspiration, therefore, for a readjustment of boundaries Italy has been animated, perhaps, first of all, by a desire to preserve the integrity of the Italian language wherever possible. In the Trentino this has been an easy matter. Much the same is true of Goritz and Trieste. But in Istria, the case is different. Again, as far as a military frontier is concerned, the winning of the Trentino and most of Goritz would give to Italy what she most needs, without allowing her desires to run out of territory linguistically hers. The possession of Trieste, however, Austria's great commercial seaport, would inevitably sow the seeds of future conflict with Austria, and with Germany, which also needs the port. Hence, might it not be a fitting destiny for Trieste to become a free city? Appreciating this, Italy had asked that Trieste and the surrounding district be made an independent state, but with recognition of the Italian sovereign.

Around the corner from Pola is Fiume, Hungary's chief seaport, with its forty thou-

sand population, mostly non-Italian, and then comes the province of Croatia, with nine-tenths of the inhabitants Croats and Serbs.

DALMATIA

Then come Dalmatia and the Dalmatian Islands, conquered by Venice in 1420 and held for a century until, after the battle of Mohacs, the Turks absorbed the greater part of the country, leaving only the maritime cities to Venice. Venice lost the cities to Austria when the republic fell. Though these cities remain Italian to all intents and purposes, Italy has far less cause on the ground of language to pretend to control Dalmatia, for Italian is spoken only in the ports, whereas the whole of the hinterland is Slav. The Dinaric Alps, forming a wall between Dalmatia and Croatia-Bosnia, mark no separation of language. As less than three per cent. of the Dalmatian population is Italian, and over ninety-six per cent. Serbo-Croat, it would seem as if Serbia and Montenegro had racially a very much greater right than has Italy to monopolize the country of *maraschino* (made in Dalmatia from the *marasca*, or cherry). On the other hand, no one can have ever seen the ports of Lussin, Zara, Sebenico, Spalato, and Ragusa without feeling that the Italian has a good deal on his side when he says that it is a case of quantity versus quality.

AVLONA

Now past Montenegro and Albania, to the southernmost point on the Eastern Adriatic shore, we come to Avlona, the best harbor in Albania, a port which Italy seized last autumn. We can see that the possession of this point,—only forty miles distant across the Strait of Otranto from the Italian mainland,—might make the whole Adriatic Sea practically an Italian lake. The possession, therefore, of a few more miles of coast land or a few more islands in the Adriatic would not apparently make any vital difference to a power which controlled that sea's gateway.

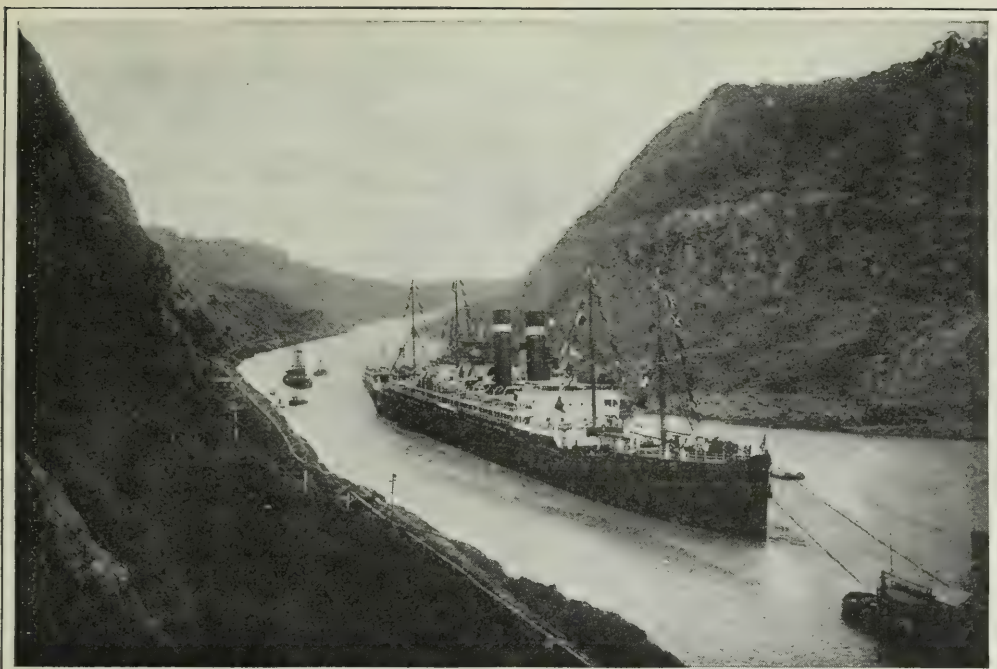
ITALY'S REASONS FOR ENTERING WAR

Italy's demands for territory in exchange for a continuance of neutrality do not tell the whole story of her determination to break with Austria. Far from it. The cause of hostility between Italy and Austria began many years ago in Italy's struggle for liberation from Austria. This struggle can hardly be said to have ended as long as the Trentino remains Austrian. In my opinion, therefore, Italy's chief reason for going to war was not mere land hunger, as has been often assumed. The compelling causes, I believe, were, first, a spontaneous sympathy with those who are resisting oppression, and, second, a longing to unite Italian-speaking people with the home country.



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CHATEAU OF NURAMAR, BELONGING TO THE ROYAL AUSTRIAN FAMILY IN TRIESTE



THE STEAMSHIP "KROONLAND" OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC LINE, WITH PASSENGERS AND FREIGHT, PASSING THROUGH THE CULEBRA CUT TOWARDS THE PACIFIC OCEAN

THE FIRST YEAR AT PANAMA

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN

(Author of "The American Merchant Marine: Its History and Romance")

A YEAR of the Panama Canal has now passed into history. The Canal was opened to commerce on August 15, 1914, when the stalwart *Ancon*, a Panama Railroad liner, that as a transport from New York had borne a notable part in the construction of the waterway, went through from Cristobal to Balboa. There followed the next day the great *Arizonan* of the American-Hawaiian Steamship Company, and the first foreign craft on a foreign voyage came on August 22, the *Daldorch*, of Glasgow, with wheat from Puget Sound for Ireland. Sudden war had broken out; ships of belligerent flags were flying for shelter, and the best of them were being commandeered by their governments.

Twelve of the fourteen vessels that traversed the Canal during the first week were Americans. In the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for May, 1913, beginning an article on "American Ships at Panama," the present writer had asked: "Is the American flag to be a stranger in the Panama Canal when it is completed? Will all maritime nations be prepared and ready then to make use of the

Canal except the nation whose money and energy have built it?" The year since August, 1914, has brought its clear and gratifying answer. The Stars and Stripes have led all other national colors; the merchant fleet that has made best use of the new waterway is the fleet of the United States.

CANAL SHIPS AND CARGOES

All told, the net canal tonnage, on which tolls are based, of vessels traversing the Panama Canal for the twelve months ending July 31, 1915, was 4,404,364, of which by far the greatest single element was the wholly American coast-to-coast tonnage of 1,416,294. In addition to this coast fleet, other American cargo vessels made a certain number of foreign voyages, particularly in the trade to and from the west coast of South America, where they were employed because of war-effects upon European tonnage. Throughout the Government fiscal year ending June 30, 1915, the tolls paid at Panama by the ships of all nationalities in all trades amounted to \$4,343,383, while the actual cost of operation for the same period was \$4,112,550.

Thus, superficially, the Canal was self-sustaining, but it must be remembered that in this statement no allowance is made for interest on the capital invested, depreciation, etc. For the time being, and until normal conditions are established, the Canal must be regarded as a great, permanent public work, the value of which cannot be measured by the commercial standard of dividends.

Ships from Australasia, the nearer edge of the Far East, and the west coast of South America for Europe and the Atlantic Coast of the United States, and ships outward bound from Europe and the Atlantic Coast on the reverse routes have constituted the chief foreign tonnage passing through the Canal. These have been "tramp" vessels or the pioneers of small freight lines as a rule; few passenger and mail liners were among them.

Crude materials and foodstuffs have made up a large part of the cargoes eastbound and westbound,—sugar, coal, copper, flour, iron-ore, lumber, oil, nitrates, wines, and grain. But manufactures of iron and steel, machinery and railroad materials conspicuously figured in both coastwise and overseas commerce. As to "general cargo," including much highly finished and valuable merchandise, it is significant that out of 100,027 tons carried through the canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in June last, 42,929 tons were in the American coastwise trade, and out of 38,614 tons from the Pacific to the Atlantic 33,576 tons were in the coastwise trade, whose ships made up more than one-third of the entire traffic of the new waterway.

A GREAT NEW COASTWISE FLEET

When Professor Emory R. Johnson, of the University of Pennsylvania, the accomplished commissioner on traffic and tolls, submitted his estimate of the tonnage that would utilize the Canal, he placed the American coast-to-coast shipping at one-tenth of the whole. Of course, Professor Johnson could not anticipate the paralysis of European services that followed the outbreak of the great war, but manifestly he had no realizing sense of the vigor and aggressiveness of American ship-owners in this long-voyage coastwise commerce.

It was too hastily assumed, when Congress in 1912 barred the Canal to all vessels in which transcontinental railroads had any interest, that the volume of American shipping at Panama would be heavily reduced by this summary exclusion of "the richest and most powerful transportation companies in America." But fortunately there were resourceful

men who were shipowners and nothing else, wholly without railroad affiliations, and they went boldly ahead to build or buy or charter steamships fit for the 6000-mile passage from New York or Boston to Puget Sound—in fact a large fleet was instantly available in the ships of coast-to-coast services already operating by transfer via the Isthmuses of Tehuantepec and Panama, or over the long old route through the Straits of Magellan. Even if war had not come, the American steamship companies would have been found to be far more thoroughly prepared with ships, terminals, and immediate plans for the full use of the Canal than the shipping managers of Europe.

SEVERAL FLEETS FROM MANY PORTS

In August a year ago and the months following, at least six wholly separate and competing steamship services, with regularly scheduled sailings, were in operation between American ports on the Atlantic and American ports on the Pacific. There were departures not only from New York and Boston, but from Philadelphia, Norfolk, Charleston, and New Orleans, and on the west coast the Canal ships plied to all important ports, as traffic warranted, between San Diego and Puget Sound. Besides the regular liners, there were frequent "steam schooners" and "tramps," for coal, grain, and lumber.

This coast-to-coast trade was an all-American commerce that under the century-old policy of our Government could be borne only in American ships. It was, and is, also unmistakably the best-served commerce that floats through Panama. The men who owned and manned the coastwise steamers knew that the competition which they faced was fair and equal competition, and that they could not be driven off the route by low foreign wages or high foreign subsidies. Therefore, an abundance of American capital could be enlisted for the building and operation of a large coast-to-coast fleet, with the promise of a reasonable return, and American ocean shipyards were, and are, full of an unwonted activity.

The Panama Canal has entered directly into the calculations of every merchant who has built an ocean-going ship in the past three or four years on the Atlantic or Pacific coast of the United States, and the same influence has been potent on the Great Lakes also. No single cause has done so much in this generation to add first-class steel steamers of an ocean type, fit for auxiliary naval use, to the American merchant marine.

LARGE SHIPS BUILDING

The American-Hawaiian Company, with twenty-five ships afloat, is building three more in the yard of the Maryland Steel Company near Baltimore,—the largest ocean-cargo fleet beneath American colors. W. R. Grace & Company on their Atlantic and Pacific line have four new steamships and are building another in the Cramp yard at Philadelphia. The Luckenbach Company, with a present fleet of ten or more, has one steamer on the ways in the great yard at Newport News, and two in the Fore River Yard near Boston.

These are all large steamers of a thorough "seagoing" class, much larger than the usual coasting craft of either seaboard, and of proportional importance to the commerce of the nation in peace and to the auxiliary defense in war. These are the regular liners; the new cargo craft under construction, designed for "tramp" trade from coast to coast or general carrying, are even more numerous. There is no "monopoly" in this Canal trade or any sign of it, but stiff and incessant competition for all cargo offering.

The Panama-Pacific line operates from New York to San Francisco two stately passenger and freight steamships formerly of the Red Star transatlantic service, the *Finland* and *Kroonland*, each of 12,600 tons. There are passenger accommodations also on some ships of other services. The Panama Railroad Steamship Company, so active in the work of canal construction, continues a weekly service from New York to and through the Canal to Balboa, connecting for Panama, South Pacific, Central American, and Mexican ports. Beautiful white ships of the United Fruit Company run from North Atlantic and Gulf ports, with passengers and cargo to the Canal Zone.

FEW FOREIGN-GOING SHIPS

But significantly there is not one American steamship service that goes through the Canal and out upon the Pacific to South America, Australasia, or the Orient. Only an occasional ship bound on a single voyage traverses the Canal in international commerce. The American flag is upheld at Panama al-



THE OPENING OF THE PANAMA CANAL: THE STEAMSHIP "ANCON" IN THE SEA-LEVEL SECTION OF THE CANAL SOUTH OF MIRAFLORES LOCKS, AUGUST 15, 1914

most wholly by the great and active coast-to-coast fleet plying in our national trade where no foreigners can follow.

There need be no mystery about this. All the chief maritime governments of Europe directly or indirectly pay in subsidy or bounty the tolls of their chief lines of steamships plying through Suez. Some of these governments were preparing before the war to adopt the same policy at Panama. They have deferred their plans, but it has just been announced that the Japanese Government has granted a generous subsidy, sufficient to pay the tolls and more, to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha for a new line across the Pacific to Panama and via the Canal to New York and Boston.

American ships engaged in Oriental commerce through the Panama Canal would have to pay out of their earnings the full toll of from \$10,000 to \$20,000 for every round voyage, for which their Japanese competitors would be compensated from their imperial treasury. Those American ships, under the new La Follette seamen's law, would be required to pay white crews of seamen and firemen from \$35 to \$55 per man per month. Japanese ships, with which the La Follette law does not interfere, would hire their Asiatics for \$8 per month. These brief hard facts—wages and tolls—explain why not one American steamship has been or is being built for Panama-Pacific international commerce.

When the war is ended, the original plan of European steamship managers will be carried out. British steamers of the Royal Mail, with a liberal subsidy to pay the tolls and smooth the way, will be on the route from Liverpool to Puget Sound and

San Francisco. French ships, German ships, Russian, Swedish, Austrian and Italian ships, whose benign governments reimburse their principal lines for the tolls at Suez, will be steaming out through the Caribbean and up and down the Pacific. There is neither place nor disposition here to debate the Panama toll question or interpret the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. Congress passed on that issue on June 12, 1914. We shall soon be face-to-face with some unconsidered consequences.

OF CHIEF ADVANTAGE TO AMERICA

However, the American flag in the coast-to-coast trade will continue to float securely and proudly at Panama so long as the historic coastwise law remains unchanged. A year ago, in August, 1914, an effort to uproot it was overwhelmingly defeated in Washington. Those in this country and abroad who urged the repeal insisted that when the Canal was opened not enough American ships would be forthcoming, even for the coastwise commerce, and that foreign ships would have to be employed. That this was an error is now demonstrated by experi-

ence. American ships in coast-to-coast trade have proved to be numerous and adequate. Freight rates from coast to coast have been substantially reduced; a great new commerce is developing.

Throughout this abnormal year of war, American shipowners of the Atlantic-Pacific fleet could have enriched themselves by abandoning their proper services and chartering all their ships at unexampled rates to carry foodstuffs and munitions to Europe. But they have not done this; they have occasionally employed thus only a few spare vessels; every one of the chief services has been steadily maintained. These shipowners have honorably recognized that their first duty was to their own flag and to their own countrymen.

The war has disrupted many and disturbed all of the accustomed routes of ocean commerce, but it has undoubtedly shaken least of all the new Panama carrying between the two coasts of the United States. The Panama Canal in its first year has benefited most of all the commerce and the shipping of the people whose wealth and resolution have created it.



THE STEAMSHIP "HONOLULAN" OF THE AMERICAN-HAWAIIAN STEAMSHIP COMPANY, WITH PASSENGERS AND FREIGHT, ENTERING THE FIRST LOCK AT GATUN BOUND FOR THE PACIFIC COAST



EWES AND LAMBS PASTURED IN THE WALLOWA NATIONAL FOREST, OREGON

(The lambs were nine pounds heavier than the same class of lambs from bands that had been herded on the same kind of land outside of pasture)

PUBLIC GRAZING LANDS: THE RANGE HOMESTEAD

BY DWIGHT B. HEARD

President of the American National Live Stock Association

EVER since President Hayes, nearly forty years ago, appointed a land commission to consider, among other matters, legislation relating to the control of the open range, the nation's great natural stock-breeding pastures, there has been a constantly growing conviction among practical stockmen of the West that to prevent the gradual destruction of the range through over-grazing and build up its carrying capacity through intelligent use, some definite national legislation was necessary, that regulated use under federal control might be substituted for the prevailing conditions of indiscriminate and wasteful misuse.

With no control of this public range and no determination of the respective grazing rights of the occupants, the stock-grazing industry has naturally been more or less of a struggle for existence. Constant clashes of interest have occurred between stockmen, particularly between sheep and cattle men, resulting in almost constant friction and sometimes bloodshed.

A few years ago, in a letter, a clear-thinking young friend of mine from Arizona voiced this situation in the following picturesque language:

The federal control of the public grazing lands is a question of greater importance to our country than is the child-labor question, or the negro question, or any other problem before our country except banking regulations and the Mississippi River. This question can never be solved with a Colt and Winchester, but the people who live on the range will keep on trying to reach a solution with the aid of those two "American civilizers."

Sheep, by nature and necessity, are migratory; cattle, by nature and by necessity, become domiciled. Sheep, by nature and by man, go in herds; cattle abhor close herd, nor does their protection demand it. The maintenance of just and fair relations between these two antagonistic interests can only be accomplished by federal control.

Of recent years the steady rise in the cost of meat has made the general public realize that something is radically wrong in the matter of meat production and compelled them



VIRGIN GRAZING LANDS,—SAND, AMOLE WEED, AND CEDAR

stock now grazed in the National Forests is nearly 50 per cent. greater than on the same area ten years ago.

When this policy of federal control of the grazing in the National Forests was established, some twelve years since, it met with the most violent opposition on the part of the stockmen who had had free use of these ranges, and it is a convincing demonstration of the practical value of grazing regulation that the stockmen using the National Forests to-day are almost a unit in favor of maintaining this federal control, and would infinitely prefer to continue paying the reasonable fees charged than to go back to the free and unregulated use of the range.

The State of Texas has also been exceptionally successful in handling its grazing lands through a leasing system, and as a result has increased the cattle grazed on the pasture lands of that State nearly 50 per cent.

THE QUESTION IN CONGRESS,—THE KENT BILL

During the past ten years many bills have been introduced in Congress for the purpose of improving conditions on the public grazing ranges. Among them have been the Burkett bill; the LaFollette bill; the Curtis-Scott bill; the Lever bill, and last year a bill was introduced in Congress by Representative William Kent, of California, himself a stockman of large practical experience, which had the endorsement of the American National Live Stock Association, the American Conservation Association, and the approval of many officers of the Government who had practically studied the situation, and the general principles of which were endorsed by the National Wool Growers' Association. Of all of these bills the Kent bill is probably the

most complete, just, and reasonable yet introduced.

Briefly analyzed, the Kent bill provides for the creation of grazing districts upon the unreserved, unappropriated public lands on proclamation of the President; fully protects homesteaders and prospectors in all their rights; authorizes the issuance of grazing permits, including the right to fence for not to exceed ten years; and provides for the payment of fees similar to those paid in the National Forests for grazing. Twenty-five per cent of such fees goes to the district in which the grazing lands are situated for the benefit of the public schools and public roads in that section. In granting leasing permits the priority of the present occupants of the ranges is recognized and provision is made for the creation of a local committee representing various classes of live stock. This committee, in coöperation with the officers appointed by the Government, shall make a division of the range between the different kinds of stock, to determine the number of animals which can be safely grazed, and have the general administrative handling of local matters, always subject to the control of the Government.

Professor J. J. Thornber, of the University of Arizona, who has spent many years in a scientific study of the range conditions and who is an eminent authority on range grasses, in an address favoring this bill, makes the following statement:

Build up these ranges as it is possible to build them up, and we shall begin once more to ship beef products out of this country instead of shipping them in. I sincerely believe that this is the greatest question before the American people to-day, and I will make no exception.

It affects both the East and the West, the consumer and the producer. It threatens the future economic policy of this country. It is all-important to you stockmen. It lies with you to go before Congress and demand reasonable legislation.

It affects both the East and the West, the consumer and the producer. It threatens the future economic policy of this country. It is all-important to you stockmen. It lies with you to go before Congress and demand reasonable legislation.

PROVISION FOR STOCK-RAISING HOMESTEADS

The Kent bill was introduced at the last session of Congress, and at the same time Mr. Ferguson of New Mexico introduced what was known as the 640-Acre Range Homestead bill, which had the approval of the Department of the Interior and finally passed the House.



CATTLE GRAZING IN NATIONAL FOREST

This bill provides that on such lands as the Secretary of the Interior may designate as stock-raising lands, a stock-raising homestead of 640 acres may be made on land of such character that 640 acres of it will reasonably support a family. Cultivation is not required, but improvement of not less than \$1.25 per acre must be made on the land,—one-half within three years from date of entry.

The bill provides for considerable freedom in the selection of the lands and it is believed by its advocates that in a considerable portion of the West it would be availed of quite largely. It at best, however, could probably be used on only a small percentage of the vast

grazing area. There seems no reason, however, why the principles of the two bills may not be combined, a general classification of all the public domain promptly made, and this long-discussed and vexed question reasonably settled.

For many years the opponents of the various bills introduced for the control and leasing of the public lands have contended that such a measure would interfere with homemaking,—handicap the small man and undermine the doctrine of State rights, because of the federal control involved. Some of this criticism has undoubtedly been sincere,—much of it has been mere sand thrown in the air to obscure the real issue. The stockmen

of the West know too well the value to the community of a real home to put any obstacle in the way of the genuine homesteader, but are glad and willing to encourage genuine homesteading to the utmost; and know full well that the best asset any community can have is homes filled with contented and industrious people.

Many of the stockmen are homesteaders themselves and it is the sheerest nonsense to suggest that they would in any way attempt



GOOD GRAZING LANDS IN CEDAR BRAKES

to handicap a man in his efforts to establish a home. As to range control giving the big man an advantage over the small one, it is difficult for me to see where there is any sincerity in this argument, for under present conditions of uncontrolled use, the big man with the long pocket-book has certainly the advantage and there can be no question in the world that if a measure of range control is passed, we shall have more and more small herds,—which means what we want in the West,—and more and more homes.

This whole question was brought to a focus last spring when a number of us appeared at a public hearing before the committee of public lands of the House, at which the Kent bill was discussed in its relation to the Ferguson Grazing Homestead bill. At this hearing large numbers of representative stockmen, some of small and others of large interests, running both sheep and cattle on the public domain, advocated the early passage of some measure similar to the Kent bill,—stated frankly that they desired no legislation which would in any way interfere with

homesteading, and suggested that the proper way to proceed in this matter of such vital importance to the nation was to secure without delay a general classification of the 280,000,000 acres of the public domain and on such portion of this land as it was found that 640 acres would reasonably support a family, put into action the principles of the Ferguson Grazing Homestead bill. While the balance of the public domain, not suitable for homesteading, should be leased along the lines advocated in the Kent bill and the present wretched waste going on in this vast area stopped.

When we consider this matter, we must not forget that the population of this nation has increased in the past thirty-five years from 50,000,000 to 99,000,000 people, and that on the other hand in the same period, the carrying capacity of the public grazing lands has tremendously decreased. The time has certainly come to stop this waste,—to begin to build up and to substitute coöperation for friction, and scientific management for recklessness.



ON AN ARIZONA CATTLE-RANCH NEAR FLAGSTAFF





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SIGNING THE TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND CHINA, ON MAY 25, AT PEKING

(The Chinese diplomats are at the left of the table, and the Japanese at the right. Beginning at the left, are: Tsao Jou-Ling, Chinese Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs; Lou Tsen-Tsiang, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs; Sze Lu-Piau, secretary; Yukicki Obata, First Secretary of the Japanese Legation at Peking; Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister to China; and Toru Takao, Third Secretary of the Japanese Legation)

THE NEW CHINO-JAPANESE TREATIES AND THEIR IMPORT

BY T. IYENAGA
(Of the University of Chicago)

THE purpose of this article is to lay before the American people, through the courtesy of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, the exact scope and main terms of the new Chino-Japanese Agreement and to invite their study of the reasons which prompted it and its effect upon the United States.

The new Agreement consists of two treaties, accompanied by thirteen exchanges of diplomatic notes, signed on May 25 and ratified on June 9. In the preambles the two contracting parties state that their desire "to maintain the general peace of the Far East and to further strengthen the relations of amity and good neighborhood existing between the two countries" and "to develop the economic relations of the two countries in the regions of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia," has led to the conclusion of the treaties. Baron Takaaki Kato, Japan's Foreign Minister, further explains in one of his communications that "in opening the present negotiations with the Chinese Government, the Imperial Government was actuated by the desire to adjust matters to meet the new situation created by the war between

Japan and Germany and of strengthening, in the interest of a firm and lasting peace in the Far East, the bond of amity and friendship between Japan and China by removing from the relations of the two countries various causes of misunderstanding and suspicion." These are the usual formulas of diplomatic language, and elucidation is needed for a clearer understanding of the motive that inspired Japan to submit her proposals to China. Before we discuss the point, however, let us examine the terms of the agreement, so that our deductions shall be based upon actual facts and not on surmises.

THE SHANTUNG TREATY

In obedience to the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, Japan entered the war and captured Kiaochow. While the stronghold has thus been lost to Germany, the great influence she had developed in China, politically and commercially, is by no means a thing of the past.¹ As China was powerless

¹ For the detailed description of German activity in China see the writer's article "Why Japan Went to War With Germany," in "Europe at War" published by the Review of Reviews Company.

to recover Kiaochow from Germany, so she is to-day impotent to resist should the invading tide at any moment roll back. It was, therefore, at once the right and duty of Japan to see to the proper disposition of the leased territory of Kiaochow and all the German concessions in its hinterland, so that the object of the campaign and fruits of victory might be securely safeguarded. Such a disposal is agreed upon in the "Treaty Respecting the Province of Shantung," with the following provisions:

China agrees to give full assent to the agreement Japan may make with Germany regarding the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions heretofore enjoyed by the latter in Shantung; that in case a railway connecting Chefoo or Lungkow with the Kiaochow-Tsinan Railway be constructed, Japanese capitalists shall be consulted for financing the undertaking; that a number of new ports in the province shall be opened for the residence and trade of foreigners; and, finally, that China will never lease or alienate to any foreign power any territory within the province or any island along its coast.

THE SOUTH MANCHURIAN AND EASTERN INNER MONGOLIAN TREATY

Just a decade ago the Portsmouth Treaty made Japan the legatee of what Russia had acquired in South Manchuria. Within that short period the region has seen a remarkable progress in civilization. Through its heart now runs the train equipped with Baldwin locomotives, Pullman and dining cars. Along the road and within the area controlled by Japan new towns, provided with all the equipments of a modern municipality, have come into being; schools, hospitals, scientific institutions have been built; trade has seen a tremendous development; new industries are springing up; the safety of person and property is assured to an extent never before dreamed of by the natives. Altogether the region presents a totally different face from what it wore during the Chinese or Russian regime.¹

But let the reader make no mistake in thinking that Japan controlled the whole of South Manchuria, or that the conditions above described rule in the entire region. Far from it. Out of a territory equal in size to the States of New York and Pennsylvania combined, what was hitherto practically in Japan's hands were the Kuantung territory with an area of 1303 square miles, the railway zone of 70-odd square miles, and the

railway track of about 700 miles with ten feet of land on either side. Beyond that limit the Japanese were barred from extending their activities. Furthermore, the terms of lease of the Kuantung territory, where Port Arthur and Dairen are located, as well as of the railways in Japanese control, were to expire within less than a decade, which necessarily precluded all permanent undertakings. It was to mend these drawbacks and to place Japan's status in those regions on a more lasting basis that the "Treaty Respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia" was negotiated. Its main stipulations are as follows:

The lease of Port Arthur and Darien and of the South Manchurian and Antung-Mukden Railways are extended to a period of ninety-nine years. The agreement relating to the Kirin-Changchung Railway will be revised on the basis of the other railway loan agreements or of more advantageous terms hereafter contracted by foreign capitalists. Japanese shall be permitted to lease land in South Manchuria for trading, industrial and agricultural purposes, to reside, travel, and engage in various businesses; and to work mines in nine specified mining areas. Japanese subjects are required to present passports to Chinese local authorities for registration, to observe Chinese police laws and regulations and to pay taxes, on their approval by the Japanese consuls. Civil and criminal suits shall be tried by authorities representing the nationality of the defendant, except that land disputes between Japanese and Chinese shall be tried by joint authorities in accordance with the laws and local usages of China. When the judicial system in South Manchuria is thoroughly reformed, all civil and criminal suits involving Japanese subjects shall be wholly tried and decided by Chinese courts. Japanese capitalists shall be first consulted before China contracts either railway or other loans with provincial taxes as security. Preference is also to be given to the appointment of Japanese as political, financial, military and police advisers.

Adjoining South Manchuria on the west there is a plateau known as Eastern Inner Mongolia. It covers one-third of Mongolia, which has an area of 1,367,600 square miles, while two-thirds are covered by Outer Mongolia. On June 6 last the representatives of Russia, Mongolia, and China signed at Kiakta a treaty respecting Outer Mongolia. The new treaty is a sequel to the Russo-Mongolian Convention of November 13, 1912, and the Chino-Russian agreement of November 5, 1913, and tends to tighten the Muscovite grip on the vast region. Eastern Inner Mongolia constitutes a buffer land against the advance of Russia toward China. The provisions of the new Treaty with regard to this region are:

¹ See the writer's article "Japan in South Manchuria," Vol. II, *The Journal of Race Development*, published by Clark University.

In Eastern Inner Mongolia Japanese shall be permitted to join with the Chinese in agricultural and industrial undertakings, and a number of new marts will be opened for the trade and residence of foreigners. The provisions as to railway or other loans and the requirement for the Japanese of producing passports, paying taxes, observing police regulations, and to civil and criminal suits, hold the same in Eastern Inner Mongolia as in South Manchuria.

DECLARATIONS CONCERNING THE HAN-YEH-P'ING COMPANY AND FUKIEN PROVINCE

In Hanyang, in the central part of China, there is an iron works called the Hanyang Steel and Iron Foundry. In the vicinity, a little lower down the Yangtsekiang, are located the Ta-Yeh iron mine and the Ping-hsiang colliery. These three industries are run by the Han-Yeh-P'ing Corporation, so called from the above-mentioned localities. In this company Japanese capitalists have already invested a capital of over \$17,500,000 and, further, the Yedamitsu Steel Foundry of the Japanese Government has made certain engagements relative to the purchase of the Ta-Yeh iron ores. It is with the view of ensuring this contract and safeguarding the rights of Japanese capitalists that the following engagement was made:

China engages to approve the joint undertaking of the company and Japanese capitalists, if such an arrangement is in future concluded, and not to confiscate or to nationalize it, or to permit it to contract any foreign loan other than Japanese.

Another important declaration made by China concerns the coast of Fukien. This province lies opposite Formosa. Strategically viewed, the establishment of any military base by a foreign power within a stone's throw of the Japanese possession would be as objectionable to Japan as it would be to America to see such an establishment on the shores of Magdalena Bay or on St. Thomas. Hence the engagement:

China will in no case permit a foreign power to build a shipyard, naval station, or any other military establishment on the coast of Fukien, nor does she intend to build such an establishment with foreign capital.

RESTORATION OF KIAOCHOW

The above declaration, it is well to remember, is nothing but an emphasis in a more definite form of the non-alienation declaration of Fukien, of April 26, 1898.

Japan makes on her part one significant

declaration about the restoration of Kiaochow to China. It reads:

If, upon the conclusion of the present war, Japan is given an absolutely free hand in disposing of Kiaochow, she will return the leased territory to China subject to these conditions:

1. Opening of Kiaochow as a commercial port.
2. Establishment of a Japanese settlement.
3. Establishment, if desired by the Powers, of an international settlement.
4. Arrangements to be made before the return of Kiaochow as to the disposal of German public establishments and properties.

CHINA'S CONCESSIONS TO JAPAN

The foregoing examination of the Sino-Japanese agreement shows that there is nothing in it that either infringes China's sovereignty, or interferes with the open door policy, or trespasses upon the rights of other powers. Instead of the principle of China's integrity being endangered, it receives a renewed emphasis by the promise of the restoration of Kiaochow and by China's voluntary declaration about the non-alienation of Shantung and "the bays, harbors, and islands along the coast of China." Instead of the open door being "slammed" by Japan's so-called machinations, her efforts have contributed to the opening of new marts in Shantung and Eastern Inner Mongolia, and have paved the way for the establishment of an international settlement in Tsingtau, hitherto a German preserve.

Among the new economic concessions Japan acquired there is none whatever that tends to constitute a monopoly. The greater part of whatever Japan secured by the agreement consists, in fact, of either the confirmation of the interests she actually possesses, or the formal recognition of what has for long been tacitly acknowledged by the world. Some might imagine that Japan obtained valuable concessions for constructing railroads in Shantung, South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia. Nothing of the kind. It is simply the option of financing the railroad undertakings that China has granted. It is purely a precautionary measure, so that Japan's interests in those regions will not be put in jeopardy by the invasion of others. True, what Japan has gained in Shantung and South Manchuria is considerable. But in the former it is the fruit of victory won at no small expenditure of men and money; in the latter it concerns Japan's special position which was secured as the result of two

wars and which, owing to geographical, political and economic reasons, had every claim to be consolidated.

WHAT CHINA GAINS

China, on the other hand, is by no means all the loser. She has, contrary to the assertion of some critics, a good *quid pro quo* to show on her side. The prospective recovery of Kiaochow is one. To have placed Japan under an obligation to give any help she is capable of rendering, when China needs it in resisting foreign aggression, as, for instance, in Shantung, is another. One more must be added, namely, Japan's pronouncement that the judicial autonomy of China in South Manchuria will be restored to her, when the judicial system therein is thoroughly reformed. When once such an initial step is taken it may lead the way for the entire abolition of extra-territoriality ruling in China. This definite curtailment of China's sovereignty, making the foreign settlements in China "*Imperium in Imperio*," is indeed a hard thorn in her breast, as it was once with Japan, so that China should welcome any prospect that gives promise of recovery of complete judicial autonomy.

JAPAN AS CHINA'S FRIEND

The fundamental policy of Japan toward China, it cannot be too strongly emphasized, is to cement the bond of amity and friendship between the two nations and properly to safeguard thereby their common interests. Self-protection and the protection, so far as it is within her right and privilege, of her neighbor against European aggression, could not but have been the controlling spirit which actuated Japan's recent move. The urgency of taking these protective measures presses upon one, when he sees the world in its present unprecedented commotion. Diplomatic language is so suave and indirect that its full force is not easily appreciated. What Japan told China in the recent negotiations might be rendered in plain English something like this:

"The colossal struggle we are witnessing in Europe is bound to affect us tremendously also. What will be the extent of the remapping of Europe within its own confines as the result of the war? This no one can at present tell. It is, however, beyond doubt that European powers will move after the war with redoubled energy toward the line of least resistance in other parts of the world, either for further gain by the victors or to recoup themselves on the part of the defeated

for the losses sustained. The Far East, unfortunately, is counted among such profitable fields of exploitation. Let us, then, be prepared to protect ourselves lest we be caught napping. We are brothers by race, tradition and culture. We are neighbors, too, related as your saying goes as 'lips to teeth' and it is true 'when the lips wither the teeth go to decay.' Our destinies are linked together,—your safety and mine are one and the same. In the past untold disasters have befallen you,—you have seen European encroachment upon your soil. They have seized fair spots of your land and have mapped out therein what they euphemistically call 'spheres of influence.' Let the history no more be repeated. Kiaochow has just been wrested from Germany and it is my intention to restore it to you. But let us make sure that Kiaochow with all that it means will not be lost to you again. Russia was once driven out from South Manchuria, but who can assure us that it is safe from the hoofs of the Cossacks unless my status therein be consolidated and strengthened? You are blessed with vast resources in land and hidden treasure. Grant me, then, the privilege of participating in their development, so that we shall grow together in strength, wealth and power. Above all, let amity and friendship be our guide, our motto, for we stand or fall together. Thus and only thus can a lasting peace in the Far East be secured."

Would that China might take Japan for her best friend! China has, however, many suitors and is often at a loss to select her true lover. This fact, coupled with China's weakness, makes the position of Japan in the Far East an extremely difficult and delicate one, and the correct adjustment of the Chino-Japanese relation a hard task. That Japan wants China for the Chinese cannot be gainsaid. To impute, as some critics are persistently doing, that Japan harbors a sinister design of ultimately making China a second Korea is simply ridiculous. It is tantamount to confessing their ignorance of the dynamic strength of China and putting a poor estimate on the intelligence of Japanese statesmen. Such an undertaking is not only beyond the range of possibility but would be to court disaster and ruin for the conqueror. While Japan wants China for the Chinese she, however, wants her to be a self-reliant, strong neighbor state, not a moribund one powerless to resist the pressure and exactions of European Powers. For upon this condition depends Japan's own welfare.

Beside commercial interests, Japan has in

China most vital political interest, for the shaping of events in the latter might not only undermine Japan's position on the Asiatic mainland, won at an enormous sacrifice of blood and treasure, but might endanger even her national existence. For self-protection, therefore, Japan cannot remain idle while China's weakness constitutes a constant source of trouble in the Far East and while China helplessly strips herself of valuable territory and rights at the bidding of European Powers. "The ultimate aim of our China policy," says Count Okuma, "has been no other than to awaken her from this morbid torpor in order to insure her future prosperity and avoid conflict with the European nations." Over and over the warning has been given; time and again it has been left unheeded. Nay, even the grave disasters that repeatedly overtook China have not succeeded in awakening her from lethargy. The sad and humiliating spectacles that meet one at every turn, at the Legation Quarter of Peking where foreign troops are quartered, at the foreign settlements wherein China's sovereignty is overridden and are established "Republics within the Republic,"—these also have failed to impress upon China and make her bestir herself. President Yuan Shih Kai has himself confessed that "as soon as the trouble was over, we indulged in all kinds of pleasure, forgetting all the former humiliations." Unpleasant task as it is to narrate this sad story, it must be done to clarify the situation. In short, in spite of the wonderful stride China has made within recent years in various domains of civilization, she still lacks self-reliance, foresight, preparedness.

Under the circumstances, the utmost Japan can do is to adopt every legitimate means to safeguard her interest and forestall European encroachments upon her neighbor. Moreover, friendship engages Japan to proffer to China suggestions for her betterment. This must have been the inspiration back of the proposals made by Japan as to the employment of Japanese political, military, and financial advisors and the supply of arms and ammunition. They are, however, entirely different in character, as Baron Kato explained in his instructions to the Japanese Minister at Peking, from the demands that were pressed and accepted. The former class belongs to friendly proffers, and it was but just that they were expunged from the ultimatum and left for future discussion. Their ac-

ceptance by China depends altogether upon the value she places upon Japanese friendship and ability.

Once China sees the point, we can see no reason why she should refuse to employ more Japanese advisors and employees. Out of 3938 foreign employees in China there are at present 245 Japanese, while the remainder is made up of 1105 English, 1003 French, 533 Germans, 463 Russians, 174 Americans and others. Nor is there any reason why China would not heed the advice of her friend which aims for efficiency and uniformity of arms and ammunition, especially if the condition in China with regard to these weapons is such as to warrant the story told by Mr. Samuel Blythe in the *Saturday Evening Post* of July 17, that "there were no fuses for the artillery shells and the soldiers were armed with ten different makes of rifles." Still less is it easy to comprehend why Japan is not entitled to enjoy in China the same privilege of religious propagandism and of holding land and property for the purpose of education and charity, which Western nations have been enjoying for decades. Manifestly, it is now incumbent upon Japan to take every possible step to win the full confidence of China, and to convince her of Japan's sincerity in working for the good of China as well as for her own.

Among American critics Professor Jenks has rightly gauged Japan's position when he says, "it is hoped that the inspiration back of these demands is Japan's eager desire to do everything possible to help the Chinese to develop themselves, a help which Japan is fully capable of rendering." In the results of the recent Chino-Japanese negotiations, there is nothing to which the American people should justly object. Their rights and interests in China are not in the least invaded or abbreviated. The principle of China's integrity is re-enforced. The open door remains open, and the increased internal development of China which is to be expected will only tend toward the expansion of American trade. America surely entertains nothing but the most cordial, friendly feeling toward China and Japan. To see these Asiatic neighbors estranged, their relation marred by suspicion and calumny, would certainly be far from America's wish. Her large heart and best interests would rather dictate the policy of coöperation and mutual help among the three nations bordering on the Pacific.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

THE VITAL PROBLEM OF NATIONAL DEFENSE

SINCE it has been definitely announced that the national administration is seriously considering plans for greatly strengthening both army and navy, the expressed views on this subject of members of the Cabinet, and particularly of the heads of the War and Navy Departments, have unusual significance at this time. The opinions of Secretary Garrison, of the War Department, have been widely published, especially in the pages of the *New York Sun*.

Secretary Garrison argues pointedly that until self-defense is held to be wrong in law or morals we must hold that national defense is not only right, but imperative. Precaution, or preparation, against what may be expected is never to be counted as lost, nor can nations, any more than individuals, justify themselves for failing to take proper forethought by trusting to chance.

Secretary Garrison maintains that those who object to military precaution do so, not because they have any logical basis for such objection, but rather on account of a certain distrust that possesses them with respect to the use of military power. If the American people are failing to follow reason and to take military precaution because of a latent fear that such precaution might be misused, Secretary Garrison feels that as a nation we have much to answer for. Those who indulge such fears seem not to have considered the danger that other nations may misuse their strength against us. Our duty in the premises is to follow reason rather than fear, to look the facts squarely in the face, and adopt such measures as are demanded by ordinary prudence. In short, the Secretary sums up his view of the situation in his concluding paragraph:

That this duty of guarding, protecting and defending is of the very essence of government is a truism, and the real question before the American people is whether they purpose fulfilling this duty or neglecting it.

In concluding an article on "Reasonable Preparation" in the *Independent* for August 16, Secretary Garrison speaks with commendation of the student camps of military instruction that are maintained every summer. On the assumption that a trained force of from 400,000 to 500,000 citizen soldiers, in addition to our permanent regular and militia organizations, will be required as a guarantee against possible invasion, military instruction must be imparted to a relatively small number of our young men in order that such a force may be properly officered.

Secretary Daniels, of the Navy Department, also writing for the *Sun*, calls attention to the fact that, for the first time in many years, the General Board of the Navy, of which Admiral Dewey is chairman, has remained in Washington during the entire summer instead of going to Newport, where it usually holds its summer sessions. This year the Board has held daily sessions, even in the summer months, making a careful study to determine what has been learned from the great war that may be applied in the increase of the United States Navy which will be recommended by the President to Congress.

Secretary Daniels cannot, of course, make any public statement as to the program to be presented, but he comments briefly on the three matters to which naval experts are giving most of their attention: (1) It is generally agreed that in the new ships speed will be sacrificed to no other consideration. (2) As to submarines, the last Congress authorized the construction of twenty-six, three of which will be the first submersibles in the world designed to accompany the battle fleet on the high seas. One of these, the *Schley*, now building, is believed to be the largest submarine ever contracted for by any government. Our government has not heretofore built its own submarines, but now has one in

course of construction at the Portsmouth navy yard. Mr. Edison has received the government's order for batteries to go into submarines. (3) Our government is placing

orders for as many aeroplanes and hydroplanes as can be purchased in America, an aviation station and school having been established at Pensacola, Florida.

COLONEL ROOSEVELT ON PREPAREDNESS

THE views of ex-President Roosevelt on "Peace Insurance by Preparedness Against War" are set forth with characteristic directness in the August number of the *Metropolitan* magazine. It was to be expected that Colonel Roosevelt's well-known antipathy to peace-at-any-price advocates would find expression in anything that he might write on this subject. Not only does he feel it his duty to call upon his fellow countrymen to arm the nation as a measure of protection against war, but he protests most vigorously against the arbitration treaties negotiated under Mr. Bryan's leadership, and against what he calls "the policy of poltroonery" and the policy "of recklessly making promises which neither can nor ought to be kept." So far as the international peace movement is concerned Colonel Roosevelt declares that "even the proposal for a world peace of righteousness, based on force being put back of righteousness, is inopportune at this time."

Colonel Roosevelt further points out that the arbitration treaties in question were in principle repudiated by the very President who had negotiated them as soon as Mr. Bryan asked that the principle be concretely applied in the case of the *Lusitania*.

When we are prepared to make our words good and have shown that we make no promises which we are not both ready and willing to back up by our deeds, then, and not until then, we shall be able with dignity and effect to move for the establishment of a world agreement to secure the peace of justice. Such agreement must explicitly state that certain national rights are never to be arbitrated, because the nations are to be protected in their exercise; that other matters shall be arbitrated; and that the power of all the nations shall be used to prevent wrong being done by one nation at the expense of another. To put peace above righteousness is wicked. To chatter about it, without making ready to put strength behind it, is silly.

So much for the future. But for the immediate present Colonel Roosevelt believes that America has a two-fold duty to perform: "First, we must prepare ourselves against disaster by facing the fact that we

are nearly impotent in military matters, and by remedying this impotence. Second, we must seriously and in good faith and once for all abandon the wicked and foolish habit of treating words as all-sufficient of themselves and as wholly irrelevant to deeds; and as an incident thereto we must from now on refuse to make treaties which cannot be, and which will not be, lived up to in time of strain."

By way of showing what a figure this country would cut if overtaken by war in its usual condition of unpreparedness, Colonel Roosevelt harks back to the War of 1812, with which episode in our national history he is especially familiar through extended research, and reminds us how in 1814 a small British army landed in Chesapeake Bay, defeated twice its number of "free-born American citizens," and then burned the public buildings at Washington.

Colonel Roosevelt gives it as his opinion that had Washington, or men who carried out Washington's policy, been in charge of our government during the first fifteen years of the nineteenth century there would have probably been no war with Great Britain in 1812, or if there had been we would have been successful. But it was Thomas Jefferson, the opponent of Washington's ideals, who gave the tone to our governmental policies during that time. He and his followers declined to prepare a regular army and refused to upbuild a navy.

The very Congress that declared war on Great Britain declined to increase our Navy. Yet if at that time we had had an efficient navy of twenty battleships or an efficient mobile regular army of twenty thousand men, the war would not have taken place at all, or else it would have ended in complete and sweeping victory the summer it was declared. We trusted, however, to the "armed citizenry" of whom Mr. Wilson speaks and the voluntary efforts of "the million men who spring to arms between dawn and sunset," described in Mr. Bryan's oratory. We trusted to the few frigates prepared by the men of Washington's school before the Jeffersonians came to power. These frigates did their duty well, and but for them it is possible that our country would have broken in pieces under the intolerable shame of our failure on land. Nevertheless, our small cruisers could produce only a moral and not a

material effect upon the war. On land for two years we were unable to do anything effective at all. When the war had begun, it was too late to make efficient preparations; and in any event we did not try. We raised a body of over a hundred thousand militiamen under the volunteer system. These militiamen were gathered in camps where they sickened of various diseases; but we were never able to get them against the foe in any numbers, except on one or two occasions, such as at Bladensburg. Mind you, they were naturally good enough men. The individuals who ran at Bladensburg were the sons of the men of Yorktown, the fathers of the men of Gettysburg. What they needed was preparation.

At the beginning of our Civil War we had a similar experience. In 1861, says Colonel Roosevelt, both of the contending armies at Bull Run could have been beaten at ease by a European army of regulars half the size of either. Two years later there was not an army in Europe which could have contended on equal terms with either of the armies that fought at Gettysburg.

As a great living example of unpreparedness, of pacifism, of the peace-at-any-price spirit, Colonel Roosevelt cites China, where the English, the French, the Russian, and the Japanese control one-half of the territory, and the government is even threatened with the loss of control of the other half.

If our people really believed what the pacifists and the German-fearing politicians advocate, if they really feared war above anything else and really had sunk to the Chinese level,—from which the best and bravest and most honorable Chinamen are now striving to lift their people,—then it would be utterly hopeless to help the United States. In such case, the best thing that could befall it would be to have the Germans, or the Japanese, or some other people that still retains virility, come over here to rule and oppress a nation of feeble pacifists, unfit to be anything but hewers of wood and drawers of water for their masters.

Contrasting the situations at the present moment of Belgium and Switzerland, Colonel Roosevelt reminds us that before the war broke out Belgium, in many respects, stood strikingly near to the position occupied by the United States to-day. Belgium was an absolutely peaceful and prosperous country with a great industrial population. No adequate military preparation had been attempted because it was thought by those who determined her policy that she would never be attacked so long as she remained peaceful and committed no aggression.

Switzerland, on the other hand, also a peaceful country, had made full preparation, having a highly efficient army of 400,000 men. According to population, Belgium on

the same basis should have an army of 700,000, and in Colonel Roosevelt's opinion, if she had had such an army and acted just as Switzerland acted, Belgian territory would now be in Belgian hands. But the actual Belgian army was only about one-sixth the size of the Swiss, and while it fought valiantly, the heroism came too late to avail. Switzerland because of her preparedness remains at peace to-day, while Belgium has been subjugated.

Colonel Roosevelt pays his respects to those statesmen represented by Senator Burton, of Ohio, who have consistently opposed the upbuilding of the navy and the fortification of the Panama Canal. While admitting that members of Congress who have followed such leadership may have the best of intentions, Colonel Roosevelt insists that their action has, nevertheless, represented an unworthy abandonment of national duty.

Perhaps the most interesting passage in Colonel Roosevelt's article is his discussion of the Philippine question. Since we have promised the Filipinos independence in terms understood to be independence in the immediate future, since our government of the Archipelago in recent years has been weak and vacillating, and on the further ground that our relative military inefficiency makes us less fitted than formerly to defend ourselves, Colonel Roosevelt advocates our leaving the Philippines at once, thus releasing ourselves from any obligation to defend them from other nations.

For the adequate protection of Alaska, Hawaii, our own coast, and the Panama Canal, our primary need is for a first-class navy, in addition to adequate land fortifications. If we have to interfere in Mexico such action would mean only a measure of self-defense and should be undertaken only by the regular army as a work of police and pacification. Our regular army, therefore, should consist of 200,000 men, giving a mobile army of 150,000. There would be no need of volunteers to police Mexico.

Besides a first-class navy and a regular army of 200,000 men, we should have a system of universal military service, perhaps on the Swiss model. Since all citizens of this republic benefit by its existence, none of them should be permitted to shirk the performance of duty necessary to the republic's welfare or life. "We should not permit brave men voluntarily to lay down their lives in order that weak, timid, or foolish men may live in peace and comfort. But until there is universal military service that is what brave and patriotic men must do."

TWO POSSIBLE CANDIDATES FOR THE PRESIDENCY



From *Collier's* Cover.

IN the series of "Presidential Possibilities" in *Collier's* (New York), United States Senator William Edgar Borah, of Idaho, is the subject of a character-sketch by C. P. Connolly. Senator Borah is fifty years of age, a native of Wayne County, Illinois, of German descent (the name originally was De Borah). At the Kansas State University young Borah was a classmate of William Allen White, and after completing his course was admitted to the bar and started for the West. His objective point was Seattle, but as his cash did not hold out he stopped at Boise, Idaho, and on a capital of \$15.75 opened a law office. Borah advanced rapidly in the practise of his profession, after the manner of young lawyers in the West in those days, and in due time reached political preferment. The most famous law case with which he was connected was the prosecution of Haywood, of the Western Federation of Miners, for the murder of Governor Steunenberg.

Borah's progressivism in politics came to the surface when he began to advocate a primary law in his State fourteen years before it was finally adopted. When he first ran for the Senate, says Mr. Connolly, there were four other candidates in the field. Borah had 18 votes on the first ballot, and the other candidates together had 24. Borah was defeated by the others combining. "He told the Legislature then that was the end

of the caucus system in Idaho; that the next fight he made for the United States Senate would be made from the crossroads up; that he would go before the people direct, whether Idaho had a primary law or not."

Four years later, however, in 1906, Borah was nominated for Senator by the Republican State Convention, delegates pledged to his candidacy having been named by the local conventions. He received the unanimous vote of the Republicans in the Legislature and was elected. At Washington he began at once to advocate the constitutional amendment providing for the election of Senators by popular vote and had charge of that resolution when it was passed by the Senate.

Senator Borah's course during his first years at Washington was somewhat of a surprise to the Republican powers. Having known of his activities in prosecuting labor leaders in the West, they made him chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor, not knowing that he was really in sympathy with the cause of labor, although opposed to violence. As a result of his Senate chairmanship, the eight-hour bill for government contracts, the child-labor bill, and the bill creating the Department of Commerce and Labor, were reported out of the committee and passed. Senator Borah led the fight in the Senate for an investigation of conditions in West Virginia, where military courts-martial were imprisoning miners and depriving them of the right of trial by jury. He even advocated an income-tax as an amendment to the Payne-Aldrich tariff bill. But he does not believe in the attempt at regulation of big business. "I don't think you can any more regulate a monopoly with safety than you can regulate a cancer in the human system," he says; "the only remedy is to cut it out."

As a progressive Republican, Senator Borah upheld Colonel Roosevelt's contest before the Republican National Committee in 1912, but refused to leave the party. He declared that under no circumstances would he bolt the nomination and that he believed that more could be done within the party than by a split. After the convention, when asked if he thought Mr. Taft was honestly or honorably nominated for President at the Chicago Convention, Senator Borah replied: "I think 78 delegates were seated for Taft that any fair tribunal would have given to

Roosevelt, and 52 delegates were seated for Taft than no honest tribunal could have denied Roosevelt."

As for himself, Senator Borah declared that he was still a Republican as he understood Republican, and that he was a progressive, but that he wished to fight inside Republican lines. Thus Mr. Connolly rightly characterizes Mr. Borah as progressive,—but not Progressive.

Former Senator Burton, of Ohio

Another Republican who is looked upon as a Presidential possibility from *Collier's* standpoint is former Senator Theodore E. Burton, of Ohio, who, on his retirement from the Senate on the fourth of last March, had completed nineteen years of almost continuous service in the national Congress. Moreover, those who read Mr. Fred C. Kelly's interesting sketch of Senator Burton's career in *Collier's* for August 21 will quite easily and naturally arrive at the conclusion that those nineteen years were not years of reckless joy in the mundane sense of the word, for Mr. Kelly shows beyond peradventure that of all men in American public life Mr. Burton is entitled to be designated as a scholar and a tireless worker.

A graduate of Oberlin College in the class of 1872, Burton gave two years to preparation for becoming a minister of the gospel, but at the end of that time decided that while he could probably preach reasonably good sermons he would never make a successful pastor, and in this conclusion most of his associates in later life would probably concur. Having given up the ministry as a life work, Burton went to Chicago to study law in the office of Lyman Trumbull, where William J. Bryan studied in later years, returned to Ohio, was admitted to the bar and began practise in Cleveland. During his first year his earnings amounted to about \$3000, and he continued to make money as long as he remained in practise. He became a member of the Cleveland City Council in 1886 along with Myron T. Herrick, later Governor of Ohio and Ambassador to France. In 1888 Burton was elected to his first term in Congress from the old Twenty-first District. Two years later he was defeated for Congress by a Democrat, Tom L. Johnson, whom Burton defeated twice in the race for the same congressional seat,—the last time in 1894.

For ten years Burton served as chairman of the House Committee on Rivers and Har-



From *Collier's* Cover.

bors. He made the scientific improvement of rivers and harbors his life study, and soon rose to a position of real leadership. Mr. Kelly points out also that Burton was one of the first congressmen to declare himself a legislator working for the United States and not alone for the district that elected him.

Several times he turned down proposed river or harbor improvements right in his own district,—even when a majority of the committee would have favored them,—simply because he believed that, considered broadly,—that is, from the point of view of the whole country, rather than of the immediate locality,—the improvement would not be a wise expenditure of money.

Not alone in the matter of waterway improvements has Theodore Burton been a leader in Congress in opposition to wastefulness in public expenditures. He has conducted one or two noteworthy filibusters in the Senate against flagrant extravagance in public-building bills. Early in his Congressional career he made a fight against the House leaders in opposition to various items in the Indian appropriation bill that carried with them vast wastefulness. He has become more or less of a specialist in fighting all manner of errors and abuses in appropriations. And his fights have been extremely advantageous to the taxpaying public.

After he went from the House to the Senate, Burton continued to make a specialty of public expenditures and to conduct filibusters against measures that seemed to him extravagant. On one of these occasions he spoke almost continuously for twenty hours. Although nearly sixty-four years of age, Mr. Burton is described as wonderfully preserved and his good physical condition is ascribed to his simple manner of living.

HOW THE BELGIANS ARE FED

SINCE the seventh day of November, 1914, the largest commissary work of history has been handled successfully by the Commission for Relief in Belgium. An article issued as a supplement to the *New Republic* (New York) of July 31, written by Mabel Hyde Kittredge and entitled "Taking Care of Belgium," describes graphically the methods employed in distributing food and clothing to seven million people.

The editors of the *New Republic* call attention to the clean and direct spirit which has characterized the work of this Commission, under the leadership of such men as Mr. Hoover, Mr. Lindon Bates, and Mr. Brand Whitlock:

It is not good-will which distinguishes this Commission. There has been plenty of that all through history. It is the fact that scientific organization has been made the servant of good-will. The significance of that is like a kindly light on the battlefields of Europe. We have admired the organization of war, its supreme technical efficiency. Here is an organization created out of nothing over night by democrats, and its efficiency yields no point to the best disciplined institutions of the world. The larger message of the Belgian Relief Commission is that democracies have within them resources of ability which in our despondency we have attributed to autocracies alone. There is hope for freedom when such capacity is at its disposal.

While the full history of the relief work cannot be written, the author notes, until after the war is over because the workers are too busy at present to write down the story of their work, there is much that can be told that is of deep interest.

The Belgian Relief Commission feeds seven million people with foodstuffs drawn from collection centers from three to eight thousand miles distant from the point of distribution. This work has enlisted over a hundred thousand volunteer laborers, including many able men of the financial world; five governments are concerned in the matter and nearly every country has made some contribution to the work.

On October 26, Brand Whitlock, the American Minister to Belgium, reported that nearly seven millions of the inhabitants of Belgium would starve unless relief was quickly obtained. At the same time Mr. Herbert C. Hoover sent out a call for help, and King Albert asked America to assist in feeding his starving people.

On November 1 the first consignment of food from America arrived in Rotterdam, and by No-

vember 7 four hundred thousand meals a day were being issued in Brussels alone, at the price of a penny a meal, and by the twenty-second the daily number was half as much again. Almost at once was created the perfect organization that we see now operating in America, England, Holland and Belgium.

The part Spain has taken in the work of the distribution of food is not generally known in this country. The Spanish Minister has worked with the American Minister, and they have been assisted by the Belgian Comite National de Secours d'Alimentation. Every country of the world has sent aid, but the Comite National has undertaken the labor of the actual distribution of the supplies.

Every ship bearing relief-commission cargoes, as well as every freight car, carries a large square of white cloth bearing the words "The Commission for Relief in Belgium." There are between 140 and 150 of these ships. These are allowed by the British, French, and German admiralities safe conduct to Rotterdam from various ports in the United States, as well as other countries.

The arrival of one of the Commission's relief ships at Falmouth is telegraphed to the Rotterdam office of the Commission, and when the ship reaches Dover she takes on a pilot who conducts her safely to Flushing and thence to Rotterdam. At the frontier the Dutch seal is removed and a seal of the Commission for Relief in Belgium substituted. All ships unload at Rotterdam. The arrival of a ship having been announced, floating elevators are sent along either side the moment she has dropped anchor in the lower port. Outside of these floating elevators are three hundred lighters or barges. These barges are to carry the wheat or foodstuffs by canal to their destinations in Belgium. An accurate account is kept of each barge, or car,—a few freight cars are used in the eastern part,—as it passes the various stations. The speed with which this work is done is ahead of all records. A nine-thousand-ton ship loaded with wheat can be emptied in thirty-six hours on three hundred barges, which are immediately towed by tugs through the canals into Belgium. The Dutch Government furnishes all facilities for unloading these ships. Holland even at one time loaned the Commission ten thousand tons of food, when the immediate need of food was imminent and it could not be sent from America in time.

The difficulties of carrying on this work are multiplied by the absence of telephone and telegraph communications and by the fact that all railroad routes are held by the military forces. Therefore the canals are the only means of distributing the food supplies, and many of these have been blocked or destroyed for reasons of war. The main food depot at Rotterdam ships stores to one

hundred and twenty principal warehouses where it is reshipped into 32,000 communal centers.

The main purchasing fund, the greatest and the sacredest of all the donations, comes from the Belgians themselves. Into this treasury has been put all that the enveloped Belgian race could gather of the remnants of their shattered fortunes. It registers their struggle for survival. Although the Commission purchases food from funds sent from all over the world, it looks upon this trust fund from the Belgians as the foundation of its work.

One of the problems that has been solved by means of the Commission's perfect organization is the grinding and turning into wholesome bread the quantities of wheat sent to Belgium.

When the wheat reaches its destination in Belgium it is delivered by employees of the Commission from the barges to mills. Most scrupulous care is taken not only that every pound of wheat sent from Rotterdam shall reach its destination, but that when wheat is turned into the mill from the barge the miller shall render account of an equivalent quantity of flour, allowing 7 per cent. for bran. This bran is the miller's pay for grinding the wheat. He is also allowed twenty-five cents for every 225 pounds of wheat. In each province there are from six to ten of these large mills, grinding only the Commission's flour. The lowliest man in Belgium is more anxious than any German, English or American to play his part well. To arouse distrust in this complicated business might mean that he and his family again must face starvation.

The woman in America who buys her six or seven loaves of bread a day has no idea of the tremendous business of the breadmaking industry in Belgium. In the first place the very action of buying thousands of tons of wheat affects the market price so acutely that it reaches every man and woman in the civilized world. It is not an easy thing to buy the wheat to make bread for seven millions of people. If the business end of it is not properly attended to it will lead to terrible disaster; it must be gone about very cautiously, and by men who possess a hard-won knowledge of the temper of one of the most capricious markets of the world. After the wheat reaches Belgium and is ground, the flour is sold to the bakers of the various districts; but each baker is allowed to bake only the amount indicated and desired by the communal officer of his district.

THE BREAD LINE IN BELGIUM

On February 10 it was estimated that if those waiting in line for soup stood single file the line would be six hundred miles long. Besides bread, soup is now the principal article of diet in Belgium. In Brussels it is prepared in great central kitchens and sent out to twenty-six distributing stations. The schools and municipal buildings, Miss Kittedge states, are used as soup-kitchens.

Work in the kitchens begins at 2 A. M., and at that hour the gas-fitters light the fires under the boilers, which are filled with water by means of a hose. Two sets of cooks and carvers arrive at this same early hour. Every receipt for soup has been carefully worked out by the best trained dietitian; even the best way to peel potatoes was studied scientifically. There is a head cook who directs and distributes foodstuffs to the soup-makers. These soupmakers are the best chefs from the hotels; each is responsible for an allotted number of boilers.

At seven in the morning the first boilers of soup are ready, and the work of filling the distributing cans begins. Immediately over the same fires the second boilers are prepared. It costs \$700 to make one day's soup in one kitchen, and it takes thirty-two cooks and thirty-two assistant cooks, besides the women who prepare vegetables.

Each person standing in line at the distributing station brings a pitcher, a saucepan, an old coffee-pot,—any receptacle that can be used to carry the soup away. Unlike most bread lines, it reveals no look of shame on the faces of the men and women.

A special department looks after the needs of children under three years of age.

Each child is examined by a communal doctor and receives one of five kinds of tickets, depending on the age and the health of the child. The portions are mostly milk, cocoa, or a nourishing, easily digested soup. At the very first the Commission gathered into the dairies all the cows it could secure. These cows are fed with corn from the Argentine and bran from American wheat, which has been milled in Belgian mills. As their milk is not sufficient, condensed milk is used as well.

THE REVIVAL OF THE LACE INDUSTRY

The lace-making industry has been revived and the new Belgian lace is collected by the Commission and sold in England and America. In all the pieces of lace woven since last autumn, the initials "C. R. B." (Commission for Relief in Belgium) are interwoven with fine lace thread.

Much of the lace held by noble Belgian families as heirlooms has been sold to employ labor. Many persons are set at work making clothing and fashionable residences have been turned into clothing shops. The garments made by this labor are sent all over Belgium, to be sold to those who have money and given away to those who have none.

HOW CAN WE HELP BELGIUM?

Beyond giving freely of our means to the Relief Commission, we can help by staying away from Belgium and making others stay away.

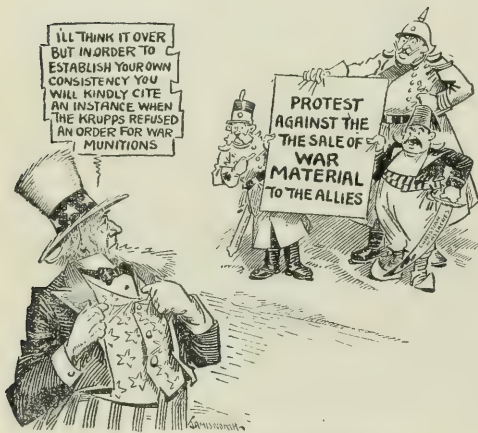
It is a new game they are playing; the rules are strange and hard to learn. Those who come to look on or to help for a little while inevitably do one of two things: they get in trouble them-

do one of two things: they get in trouble themselves, and someone has to stop his work to help them out, or they get the Commission into trouble. It takes months, not weeks, to learn what neutrality means in Belgium.

As the editors of the *New Republic* note in their foreword to this excellent article, the Commission of Relief has done an incomparable work, not only in feeding the hungry,

and thereby saving physical life, but in the saving of the national life of the Belgian nation, by the "turning of the thoughts of the Belgian leaders from empty hopelessness to the organization of their people." It has been a struggle of the efficiency of the constructive forces of humanity pitted against the terror that confronts the world to-day,—the efficiency of the forces of destruction.

THE CASE FOR THE MUNITIONS TRADE



IN THE LIGHT OF CONSISTENCY
From the *Daily Ledger* (Tacoma, Wash.)

IN view of Austria's recent protest against the shipment of munitions of war by private manufacturers in the United States to the Allies, the compact statement of the rights of Americans under international law, by Professor Theodore S. Woolsey, in *Leslie's Weekly* for July 29, is timely. Professor Woolsey is everywhere recognized as one of the leading authorities on international law. He finds justification for those American manufacturers who are supplying European powers with munitions of war in Article 7, Convention 13, of the 1907 Conference at The Hague:

"A neutral power is not bound to prevent the export or transit, for the use of either belligerent, of arms, ammunitions or, in general, of anything which could be of use to an army or fleet."

Professor Woolsey points out that the article preceding this had prohibited a government from itself engaging in this trade, so that the distinction between what the state and the individual may do is made per-

fectedly clear, provided both belligerents are treated alike. To permit trade in arms with one belligerent and forbid it with another would be unneutral and illegal.

Professor Woolsey next discusses the question whether the fact that, owing to the chances of war, the right to buy munitions inures to the advantage of one belligerent only, makes our conduct unneutral. He decides that exactly the contrary is true:

To embargo munitions bought by one side because the other side does not choose to buy would be the unneutral act. Germany does not buy, because she cannot transport. She cannot transport because she does not care to contest the control of the sea, with her enemies. Have we ought to do with that? To supplement her naval inferiority by denying to the Allies the fruits of their superiority would be equivalent to sharing in the war on the German side. Moreover to assume and base action upon German naval inferiority in advance of any general trial of strength would be not only illegal but even an insult to Germany.

The German Ambassador, it is true, has called our export of munitions unneutral conduct, but the government at Berlin has made no complaint and cannot consistently make such complaint. Germany has not cared to risk her fleet by contesting the control of the seas, and so has lost her share of the munitions trade. But that is her affair and she must accept the result.

Opposition to the trade seems to come from two classes of individuals: "(1) German sympathizers who seek to minimize the advantage the sea-power gives the Allies, and (2) Those who are governed by their emotions rather than by reason and respect for law." In this connection Professor Woolsey calls the attention of both these classes to the usage in former wars,—for example, the large German exports of arms to the British forces in the Boer War after

the war trade had been cut off, the Krupps' activity during the Russo-Japanese War in supplying both sides. Reference is also made to the fact although England sympathized with the South in our Civil War, she sold to the North, and in 1870 she sold to France.

In our own country the munitions trade cannot be forbidden without explicit legislation. At the outset of the Spanish War the export of coal or other war material was forbidden as a war measure at the discretion of the President, but Congress in 1912 amended the 1898 resolution so as to make it apply to American countries only. It was thought desirable to limit the danger of exports of arms to our neighbor states, par-

ticularly to Mexico, by which our own peace and safety might be endangered. The general right to trade was left undisturbed.

Arguing the question on ethical grounds alone, Professor Woolsey can see no difference between a peace trade and a war trade from the humanitarian standpoint; between arming a neighbor by our exports in preparation for war and re-arming him during war. If one regards all wars wrong, aid in waging war by trade in munitions, whether in peace time or war time, should be abhorrent to one's conscience. So far as the present war is concerned we have to take the word of each party that it is fighting in self-defense. We owe both parties, ethically, simply equality of treatment.

INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC RELATIONS AFTER THE WAR

ONE of the greatest boasts of twentieth-century civilization until that portentous date, August 1, 1914, was the harmony and amity with which men of science all over the world had built up a system of mutual intercommunication and assistance, valuable not only to themselves, but to all humanity.

There has been no more painful feature of the great conflict than the shattering of this wonderful system, and the substitution of discord and acrid recrimination among men avowedly devoted solely to the service of the great white goddess, Truth. We earnestly believe, however, that the intellectual and spiritual bonds thus cruelly ruptured will heal even more rapidly than political dissensions. Nevertheless, there will remain, doubtless, a number of irreconcilables among men of letters and science on each side, and particular tact in dealing with these must be exercised by the men of broader vision who are even now attempting some sort of reorganization of the united intellectual life of the world. Such reorganization and reconciliation may very probably be attempted by Sweden, since this is not only a neutral country, but is already a central clearing-house for intellectual achievement, as it were, because of the presence in Stockholm of the Board of Directors of the Nobel Prize Fund. A well-known Swedish journal, in fact, the *Swenska Dagbladet*, recently opened its columns to a discussion of the steps to be taken after the war for the resumption of international scientific relations. That this resumption will

be attended with difficulties is only too clear from a reply to the proposition published in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris) of July 3. This is from the pen of M. Paul Sabatier, not only a distinguished member of the *Institut*, but himself a recent recipient of one of the Nobel prizes. He writes:

It is evident that the terrible war under which Europe is suffering has irremediably disturbed the relations between savants of hostile countries. It might perhaps have been hoped that the realm of science would have remained the inviolate tower of ivory, inaccessible to exterior tempests. But the wind of violent passions unchained by the war has from the beginning swept away that dream.

Many French savants have had relations of cordiality and even of friendship with their German colleagues, and to read the names of these at the bottom of the "Manifesto of the Ninety-three Intellectuals" was for the former a sorrowful surprise. It would seem impossible that these relations should ever be resumed, and similar ones could be re-knotted only between future generations of intellectuals born to science after the present torment.

Between the German savants and ourselves there will always rise the burning of the University of Louvain, the ruin of the Halls of Ypres, the bombardment of the cathedrals of Rheims and Soissons, the firing upon and the innumerable tortures of women, children, priests, and a barrier which is perhaps even more immovable, the special pleading of Germanic Kultur and its hegemonic ambitions. It is evident that the ditch already dug will never be filled in, and that on the contrary it can only be deepened by the rancors which defeat will provoke in the bosoms of the vanquished.

In spite of the strict neutrality which the Swedish nation has preserved in the conflict the world

rôle which the allotment of the Nobel prize fund has given to Sweden will become very difficult to exercise,—so much the more since the greater part of the advices which they must demand from the representatives of European science cannot be regarded as being furnished impartially.

Time will be the only workman capable of the labor of pacification or of producing future union

in the domain of science: reunions in the form of congresses will certainly be futile. But just as flowers and moss will at last reconquer the fields ruined by battle, so will there be a reflowering of European science in all its brilliance, if, as is our profound hope, the sorrows and sacrifices of the present hour are but a prelude to the disappearance of militarism and organized barbarism.

THE NATIONAL SONG OF ITALY

EVERYONE is familiar with the stirring words and inspiring melody of the "Marseillaise," and the words and music of the "Watch on the Rhine" are likewise widely known, but there are few people in this country, probably, outside those of Italian origin, who know anything about the "Hymn of Mameli," as the Italian national song is called from the name of the gallant lad who composed it only two years before he died, at the early age of twenty-two, from the effects of a wound received in battle.

Goffredo Mameli, the author, as we learn from the July number of *Larousse Mensuel* (Paris), was the son of Rear-Admiral Giorgio Mameli of the Italian navy, and was born at Genoa in 1827. In 1847 Lombardy and Venice undertook to throw off the irksome Austrian yoke. Young Mameli, who had evinced an ardent patriotism ever since his adolescence, was among the first to take arms in the struggle against the army of Radetski, giving a good account of himself in various battles and later becoming a follower of Garibaldi in the insurrections of that epoch. He was wounded in the leg during the defense of Rome on June 3, 1849, amputation was found necessary on June 19, and on July 6, three days after the fall of the Roman republic, the youthful poet and soldier laid down his life.

His hymn, animated with the pure ardor of the patriot and the warrior, was at first the song of the volunteers from the plains of Lombardy, then that of the Garibaldians; it then bore the title of *Fratelli d'Italia* (Brothers of Italy). It was not destined to be forgotten. A year after the death of the poet his works were edited at Genoa with a moving preface written by the patriot, Mazzini. Henceforth the poems of Goffredo Mameli, and notably *Fratelli d'Italia*, now called the Hymn of Mameli, were learned by heart by the school-children.

The music to which the glowing and ardent words of the poem were set was written by a compatriot of the young poet only five years his senior. This composer, Michele Novaro, was likewise born at Genoa. He lived until 1885 and his graceful and roman-

tic melodies were well known and much esteemed.

The various couplets of the Hymn of Mameli make a direct appeal to Italian patriotism by their references to glorious and memorable events in the history of the nation.

They refer to Scipio, the conqueror of Hannibal; to Legnano, the name of a victory of the Milanese over the troops of Frederic Barbarossa in 1176; to Feruccio, a celebrated *condottiere*, who played a great rôle in the sixteenth century in the revolt of Italy against the House of Austria; and to Balila, a young boy of Genoa, who in the course of these same insurrections in the sixteenth century gave the signal for revolt by throwing a stone in the face of the commandant of the Imperial troops, instantly paying with his life for his heroic act.

We quote one stanza and the refrain of this spirited battle-hymn, with a literal translation of the words:

Allo Marziale.

"*Fratelli d'Italia, L'Italia s'è desta,
Dell' elmo di Scipio S'è cinta la testa.
Dov'è la vittoria? Le porga la chioma,
Chè sciava di Roma, Iddio la creò.*"

Refrain:

Allo Mosso.

"*Fratelli d'Italia, L'Italia s'è desta,
Dell' elmo di Scipio S'è cinta la testa.
Dov'è la vittoria? Le porga la chioma,
Chè sciava di Roma, Iddio la creò,
Stringiamci a coorte, Siam pronti alla morte,
Siam pronti alla morte, L'Italia chiamò,
Stringiamci a coorte, Siam pronti alla morte,
Siam pronti alla morte, L'Italia chiamò! Sì!"*

Even persons unfamiliar with Italian cannot fail to be impressed by the ringing melody of these lines, and the forcefulness imparted by the skilful use of repetition and inversion. A literal translation is as follows:

"Brothers of Italy, Italy is aroused,
With the helmet of Scipio she binds her brows.
Where hideth Victory? Let her bare her head,
For the slave of Rome, God hath created her.

Repeat:

Form now the cohorts! We are ready to die!
We are ready to die! For Italia calls us!
Form now the cohorts! We are ready to die!
We are ready to die! For Italia calls us!

Yes!"



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LIVING IN CELLARS IN SOISSONS, FRANCE

(The heavy and continued bombardment of Soissons made it necessary for the people of that war-ravaged spot to live underground)

FRENCH EFFICIENCY IN WAR

THE preëminence of Germany's political and social organization is generally assumed by her friends and enemies alike. It has been taken for granted ever since the war began that no other power would be able to apply itself so thoroughly to the work in hand and hence that no other power could contest with Germany for supremacy.

Professor Franklin H. Giddings, of Columbia University, who has been for many years a profound student of civilization, challenges this assumption. In the *New York American* for August 1 he declares that France, in proportion to her population and her wealth, has shown herself to be, all in all, a better working machine than Germany, and he takes as his standard of efficiency in society the same standard that is almost universally recognized by Germany's admirers,—that is, the amount of work done in proportion to the mass of appliances, or, in other words, "a good engine which, in proportion to its weight and its bulk, develops more horse-power than an engine bigger and heavier." Of the achievements of

France since the outbreak of the war Professor Giddings says in the course of his article:

There have been an elegance, a precision, an economy in all her efforts that have called forth the admiration of onlookers, as the artistic excellence of her manufactures, her books, her plays, her modes, has called it forth in the years of peace. And these results France has achieved through the spontaneous coöperation of the individual with society, and of both individual and society with the government, which has no perfect parallel elsewhere. France has, in fact, practically solved, in a high degree, the problem of obtaining from democracy the working efficiency that Germany obtains by authority.

Why, then, may not this be the way out for every nation? Why speak of this plan as a possibility only, and take for granted an impending struggle between classes and masses? Why, at all events, should not England and the United States study French methods and emulate French achievements rather than give themselves over in the name of efficiency to a business feudalism, if that plan can win out, or to a democratic socialism if it can win out?

The answer is short and simple. The French scheme of social organization and functioning calls for intellect—intellect everywhere; not only in the Academy, in the university, in the labora-

tory, but also in the Senate Chamber, in the Chamber of Deputies, in the business office, in the labor syndicate, in the shop, on the farm. And it calls for it in a certain peculiar way which Americans generally do not understand. It calls for intellect as something admired, honored, socially recognized, as something which offers to the humblest citizen both opportunity and distinction. In France the admiration of intellect is universal. America has intellect abundantly, but America does not as yet admire,

recognize, and honor intellect in the French way. Beyond all things else, America admires business success, and, next to that, political adroitness. These admirations make directly for a business control or a political control of the entire social fabric. The French socialized state is not workable by a population in which adroitness and success are supremely admired. They are workable only by a population in which the rewards of admiration and respect go spontaneously to intellect as such.

THE SWISS MILITARY SYSTEM

IN all the recent discussions of American preparedness there have been frequent references to the Swiss method of training soldiers. A former lieutenant of infantry in the Swiss Army, Frederick Arnold Kuenzli, writing in the *New York Times*, states that 70 per cent. of the Swiss that enter the military service are already physically well-trained men and competent marksmen. This is largely due to the influence of the great educator Pestalozzi, who showed the need and the feasibility of physical exercises corresponding to the physiological and natural development of the boy. Thus a

system of physical training has been developed as a part of the ordinary school education. But it was found that the exercises contained in the military drill regulations of the Swiss Army provided the best form of needed physical exercises for boys, and, at the same time, promoted the required discipline. Therefore, the whole physical training of the Swiss boy in school, beginning at his tenth year, has, as a basis, the "Infantry Drill of the Army," edited by the Swiss War Department.

So thorough and uniform a drill continued for six years, followed by instruction in



SWISS MOUNTAIN INFANTRY MARCHING IN SINGLE FILE

cadet corps and preparatory courses, makes a promising soldier out of the average youth. When he enters service as a recruit he is already acquainted with the work that has to be done and executes the familiar commands almost automatically.

In the cadet corps physical training obtained in the school is supplemented by training in marching and shooting. The cadet wears the uniform and has a miniature model

of the regulation rifle. He goes through the same instruction in rifle practise as the soldier.

In civil life every Swiss soldier is compelled to be a member of a rifle club, and to undergo a yearly shooting rifle test consisting of 36 shots, with a minimum of 75 per cent. hits and 60 per cent. points. Every village and town in Switzerland has a field range for rifle practise.

"THE HOME SIDE OF WAR-TIME"

AN extraordinary leveling-up and leveling-down process,—the establishment of a certain equilibrium between classes,—has been going on in England since the outbreak of the war, chiefly owing to the extended relief work of the various charitable organizations,—in particular the Soldiers' and Sailors' Families' Association. The work of this organization was originally devoted to the "needs of women related to soldiers actually serving with their respective regiments or reservists who had been called up and were unable to make adequate provision for their families beforehand."

After August, 1914, the enlistment of large numbers of men throughout the British Isles necessitated the formation of many branches and sub-divisions of this Association on account of the tremendous increase in the duties to be performed. The funds at the disposal of the Association were found to be entirely inadequate, and the Prince of Wales National Relief Fund gave over one million pounds sterling to this charity. An article by Helen Anstey, entitled "The Home Side of War-Time," published in the *Contemporary Review* (London) for August, gives the reader an excellent idea of the practical side of the relief work in the East End of London.

It will be readily understood that, with few exceptions, the homes referred to are those of recruits, men who have joined Kitchener's Army, not reservists. The visitors, on arrival at the office about 10 A. M., goes over her cases for the day. These being arranged and the War Office forms filled up, she sallies forth on her round.

Her first case is in a typical East End street:

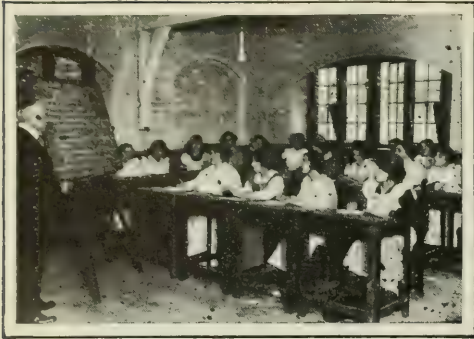
A feckless young Irish mother with a pretty face and attractive brogue,—in spite of dirt and unkempt hair,—tells one that her husband has been sentenced to some months' imprisonment for striking his corporal; consequently her pay has

been stopped. What is she to do? She has nothing whatever to go on with, and the children must be fed and the rent paid. All the facts are carefully noted, some in pencil, but more mentally; and the promise that her case shall come before the Committee that afternoon, and that someone will come and see her again tomorrow, puts new heart into this almost demented woman, whose husband was in decent work before he enlisted.

Any tendency to criticize these unfortunate sufferers from the conditions of war is condemned. The visitor must not preach, but rather endeavor to be helpful and sympathetic. It is found that the women who receive the donations from the Association fund are amenable to all suggestions regarding domestic matters save one,—that of cookery. They will not go to a cooking class, the author writes, as on this point the working-class Englishwoman is most difficult and self-opinionated.

In regard to the suffering of the middle-class Englishwomen, Mrs. Anstey writes:

It is frequently averred that the middle class is the one which suffers the most keenly and silently during any great national crisis, whether it be in the matter of strikes, depression in trade, or other causes. There are thousands of homes brought to the verge of despair without any special outlet for sympathy or relief. The burden of trying to make ends meet on a vastly reduced income added to the anxiety for those whose places are vacant,—having to take the children away from good private schools and send them to the nearest Board School, and similar economies,—creates a problem never met with before in the history of British warfare. Hundreds of cases might be given where men have been earning £250 to £400 a year, whose wives find themselves reduced to a mere subsistence. Many of these women have not known of the S. S. F. A. until rent-day came around, and they had to confess that it was impossible to meet it. Invariably the agent suggests an application to the Association, with the assurance that it will be met with every kindness and sympathy. In such cases a certain amount is allowed for arrears, and a similar proportion added to the



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York
LONDON GIRLS ARE BEING TAUGHT THE GROCERS'
TRADE

(A lecture room where the girls are being instructed along these lines)

allowance in the future for rent. The greatest tact and courtesy are shown, and every applicant is made to feel at ease; her affairs are kept strictly private, and a friendly feeling is established which frequently leads to something being done for the children, or if sickness occurs, sending a nurse to attend the invalid.

Many other charitable organizations and clubs have linked up their work with that of the S. S. F. A. At some of the clubs a "Talk on the War" is given once a week in order to teach the working-class women what it all means. In many cases they have been too ignorant to "see what difference it would make if the Germans did come and rule England. These women have always been so miserably poor that they did not suppose conditions would be any worse with the Germans than without them."

It is amazing how ready they are to receive interesting information about the world beyond their very limited range of knowledge, and, rightly used, the present crisis affords an excellent opportunity for educating them in true patriotism and loyalty to their country. . . . With but few exceptions, however, this work has a marvelous leveling-up and leveling-down process about it. As it is not philanthropic, there is no room for patronage; the one great link is "the man at the Front" fighting, coming home wounded, or, too often, dying for his country,—and the burden of many a heart finds its greatest relief in sharing that sorrow with others.

How Englishwomen Are "Saving the Land"

Alice Martineau writes in *The Englishwoman* (London) that perhaps the only blessing that has been bestowed by the stern necessity of war is the giving to woman her rightful share of the world's work. Now that there are not enough men in England to do the necessary work, women have been

given the opportunity that was denied them previous to the war, and they are proving to the Englishmen, that Englishwomen are able to shoulder the work of a nation with entire efficiency. The author writes that working women are wanted in thousands throughout England, particularly in the country districts. She gives her own establishment as an example of the many estates that are stripped of their working men by the call of the army.

In this small village over one hundred and twenty men are serving. My last men go this week, and a woman left behind in one of the villages has three days in which to learn to milk, feed, make butter and take her husband's place. . . . Here, where six men are kept normally, I find myself with two boys, one sixteen and one thirteen. Left first with no head gardener, I undertook that duty myself, without difficulty, as I have made gardening my profession the last few years. The chauffeur went, so I learned to drive the car, and it is washed by the small boy (who loves it). Gradually, they (the men) have all gone, and their places are being taken by women,—two of whom come and weed and pick fruit with great ability,—and I have been able to get an old man two days a week. Now that my foreman and cow-man are leaving, I shall take a well-trained woman-gardener as head and let her get her own assistants, beginning them as pupils.

While not every girl can aspire to positions which have been filled by carefully trained men, still there are thousands of girls and women who are so quick and deft that in a short time they can be trained to perform all the duties of a gardener under slight supervision. Given the same instruction, the girl of fifteen will outstrip the boy of fifteen in the art of gardening by months.

Women have their place wherever it is a question of the breeding and caring for animals. They have an innate sympathy with them which is most helpful, especially in the milking of cows, where they are usually more successful than men. Never have I had such success with poultry as when a Scotch cook took charge of my hens. They laid all winter and ate less wheat in six months than they usually do in three.

The National Political League has obtained a small grant from the English Government to assist girls to get training in gardening and other trades, and Mr. Farrar, a well-known authority of poultry-breeding, fruit-farming, etc., proposes to take pupils without fees.

The whole question of putting women to work in these rural occupations, drained of their men workers, is the question of "saving England," of "saving the land for the men who are fighting."



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SIR THOMAS LIPTON AND PARTY WITH SERBIAN OFFICERS ABOUT TO START ON A VISIT TO THE SERBIAN FORTS AT BELGRADE

IMPRESSIONS OF SERBIA

A WRITER in the Swiss monthly, *Bibliothèque Universelle*, who has spent some time in Serbia, is impressed by the varied activities of the military and hospital corps from the allied armies. He noted a marked difference between the English and French representatives in their manner of procedure. The English, he says, arrive in Serbia with a determined purpose. "They have foreseen everything, and are completely organized." Not only is their hospital installation complete, but their personal equipment down to the smallest detail is all on the ground and ready for use. Nor is the comfort of the workers overlooked, for packs and cases are filled with a great assortment of necessities. They begin work immediately. "Once on the spot and organized, the hospital or the sanitary service which they propose to direct belongs to them. They are quite at home among themselves and do not hear the orders which others give. Their domain becomes a little fragment of the British Empire."

The French, on the other hand, arrive with a less clearly defined purpose. They put

themselves at the disposition of the Serbian Government which decides what direction their activities shall take. "Thus I met yesterday two little French Boy Scouts who had worked on the French front as chauffeur and machinist for more than five months, and who came directly from Paris without knowing a single Serbian word in order to enter the Serbian service. In the afternoon of the same day I saw them again proudly ensconced on an auto truck which they were guiding with a firm hand through the poorly paved streets of Kragujevatz."

The French mingle freely with the people of the country and are everywhere seen making friends with soldiers and civilians, in the meantime picking up a Serbian vocabulary.

The writer remarks that in spite of these obvious differences of nature the vivacious French and the phlegmatic English both fulfil equally well their common duty towards their brothers in arms.

For reasons that will be readily understood this writer does not speak of the extent of the military aid lent by the Allies to the Serbians. It is sufficient to say that the allied troops are

represented in Serbia, and that France, England, and Russia are joining in the military reinforcement of the country. In fact, it is now conceded that this part of the theater of war will have great importance in the issue. During the winter, as well as a great part of the autumn and spring, Serbia is one of the few ways of communication, if not the surest, between France and England on the one side, and Russia on the other. In fact, last December an effective reinforcement of troops permitted the Serbians to invade Hungary and to coöperate with the Russians.

Serbia has not let so many months of cessation from active warfare pass by without profiting from it by reorganizing and equipping her army and war apparatus. At the present time the army, in spite of the relatively large losses of the past autumn, is quite as strong as at the beginning of hostilities. The morale of the troops, powerfully stimulated by the lasting victories of the month of December, is excellent.

It is true that the uniforms have become

rather more variegated than those of last autumn, but they are more military, thanks to the numerous pieces of equipment left by the Austro-Hungarians on their precipitate retreat. "Austria has remained, in spite of the war, but quite involuntarily, one of the best purveyors of the Serbian kingdom."

In the streets of Valjevo and other Serbian cities one may see to-day the hospital uniforms and costumes of all the allied nations and of some neutrals. From the French military physicians in varied uniforms, the English surgeon is distinguished by his comfortable suit of khaki. English and Scotch nurses, as well as Russian Sisters of Charity, are severely gowned in brown woolen with a Red Cross on the breast. Everywhere one meets people who, when speaking to the inhabitants of the city, take conversational dictionaries out of their pockets in order to find the needed Serbian word. It is said that Serbia has never before seen, and probably will never see again, in her towns so many representatives of foreign nations.

SERBIA AND DALMATIA

THE article in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne, Switzerland), from which we have quoted above, proceeds to discuss the attitude of the Serbian people towards the so-called Dalmatian question.

It had been assumed in Serbia before Italy entered the war that she would expect as compensation a large part of Dalmatia, which is considered by the Serbians as Slavonic territory and especially Serbo-Croatian. Prior to the Venetian domination of four hundred years, Dalmatia had been governed by Serbian and Croatian princes. Ragusa was a city famous especially for her literary men and was known as the Slavonic Athens.

The Venetians brought soldiers, officers, traders, priests, and with them the Italian language into the cities. It was principally the clergy, in charge of the schools, who were the powerful agents of Italianism. Nevertheless the peasant and even the inhabitant of the city suburbs have remained Slavonic and have always continued to use the Serbian language. In spite of the official character of the Italian, certain rurals of the communes have always addressed their correspondence to the authorities in Serbia. All the population of Dalmatia assembled in the old church near Kwine even to-day, in order to commemorate the 15th of June, the battle of Kasso (1385) where fell, with the Emperor Lazare, Great Serbia which had encompassed all the Jugo-Slavonic countries even to the gates of Salonica.

During the short lapse of time that Dalmatia passed under the rule of the French, the latter recognized the Slavonic character of the country and printed at Zara their official bulletin in Serbian. This French domination of the country had still another effect: It awakened the national sentiment among the Dalmatians.

In 1815 the Congress of Vienna again awarded Dalmatia to the Austrians, who had already had it from 1797 to 1806. The latter, considering themselves half an Italian power, naturally favored Italianism at the expense of Slavism and the country remained in intimate contact with Lombardy and Venetia.

But the house of Hapsburg having lost these two provinces in 1859 and 1866, Dalmatia, separated from them, came in touch with the Jugo-Slavonic countries which surrounded her and felt, at the same time, the attraction of free Serbia.

All this and especially the reform of the political régime to which Austria saw herself forced, contributed to awakening more and more the national idea in the people. A national Serbo-Croatian party was formed and worked openly through the newspapers, literary societies, and on political grounds for the emancipation of the Jugo-Slavonians.

The government of Vienna naturally does not take kindly to these efforts. The Italian party serves her for paralyzing them. In spite of these difficulties the Serbo-Croatian party prevails and soon they have the majority in the Dalmatian Diet. They profit by officially introducing the Serbian language into the administration and the schools. At the present time, the Serbian is so truly the language of the country that the candidates of the Italian party are forced to



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE CITY OF RAGUSA IN DALMATIA, ONCE UNDER SERBIAN RULE AND KNOWN AS "THE SLAVONIC ATHENS"

address themselves to the electorate in this language in order to invite them to vote for them!

The Austrian census of 1910 shows a population of 645,606 in Dalmatia, of whom 610,669 are Serbo-Croatians and 18,018 Italians. Only 3 per cent. of this population are Italian! Moreover, thirty-six of these forty-two deputies of the Diet are Serbo-Croatians and the eleven Dalmatic deputies of the Reichsrat are all Serbo-Croatian.

The feeling of the greater part of the inhabitants of Dalmatia has remained Serbian. Even Chibenikois Nicolas Thomasco, a literary man better known in the Italian language, considers himself a scion of the Serbian race, and he felt for Serbia when he wrote: "For us other Serbians, the national songs are the only school where we can learn the beauty of our tongue." The Serbian victories in the Balkan wars were celebrated nowhere with as much enthusiasm as in Dalmatia.

Serbia has a further reason of an economic or commercial nature for desiring the reunion of Dalmatia and Serbia. Most of the Slavonic countries need Dalmatia for the sake of access to the sea.

As to Italy's argument that it is indispensable to her national welfare to have the larger part of the Dalmatian coast in order to prevent a future Slavonic expansion to the West, this writer does not regard the possi-

bility of such expansion as a real danger to Italy's interests.

If this war ends with a complete victory for the Allies, and if an impartial division makes Great Serbia Jougo-Slavonic, the Serbians will then have attained to their national idea and will not demand any more than to exploit peaceably the riches of their country, which have been underrated up to the present time. They have no desire to annex other countries which do not belong ethnographically to them. The example of Alsace-Lorraine has been understood here.

Moreover, they will have so much to do and organize in the interior that their activity will be limited to this work for many years. And then all their pecuniary resources will be absorbed by these needs. Just reflect upon what it will cost in money and work to completely organize or establish a port at Ragusa, Zara, or Cattaro!

It may even be to Italy's interest to have Dalmatia controlled by Serbia.

Great Serbia reorganized will no longer make herself a servant to Austria and Germany, as Little Serbia has been compelled to do. Italy united with the Serbians by an open friendship will take her place quite naturally and will open up her own market for the Balkan countries. She has now a major commercial and industrial advantage in drawing near to Serbia.

Even in case of victory by the Allies, Germany and Austria will continue to exist and will seek to restore their lost power. In such

a case it is suggested by this writer that a close alliance between Italy and Serbia would be advantageous to both countries.

SERBIA'S CLAIMS ON MACEDONIA: HER CASE AGAINST BULGARIA

THE Allies have been hard at work lately, trying to accomplish the apparently hopeless task of reconciling the differences between Bulgaria and the other members of the disrupted Balkan League. On a small scale Bulgaria has really been subjected to a policy of isolation such as Germany has complained of in recent years. In order to enjoy her full share of the trade opportunities offered in the Adriatic, as well as to consolidate the scattered members of her branch of the Slavic race, she demands as her right in any future readjustment of the Balkans that share of Macedonia of which she was deprived in the second Balkan War. This matter is handled in the Italian review, *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) with some natural partiality by a Serbian deputy and ex-Minister of Commerce, Costa Stoyanovitch. While he freely recognizes the almost imperative necessity that induces the Allies to leave no means untried that will bring the Balkan States into the war, he strongly opposes the abandonment of Serbian Macedonia, and, although the latest reports indicate that Serbia may be persuaded to yield on this point, the writer's views on the subject still retain their interest and value. He says:

Serbia, Rumania, and Greece, in regulating their political relations by the Treaty of Bucharest in 1913, had for their aim the assurance of the Balkans for the Balkan peoples, to the exclusion of any hegemony of one of those peoples over the others. To wish now to destroy this work, by means of an evident violation of the principle of nationality, cannot correspond either with the well-understood interests of the Balkan peoples or with those of the great powers, which have undertaken the present war in defense of the cause of justice against the violence of brute force.

We fully understand all the difficulties at this moment existing in the field of military operations, but it should be plain that if Serbia,—who has been fighting for four years in defense of her individual rights and for the triumph of justice, risking therefore her very national existence,—should not feel able to give up Macedonia, this is wholly and solely because that province is for her an essential element of her existence.

Turning then to the vexed question of the racial affinities of the Macedonian population, the writer gives a brief summary of the

history of Serbia, Macedonia and Bulgaria, and claims to show that the Slavs of Macedonia are much more closely related to the Serbs than to the Bulgarians. Indeed, it is easier for a Serb to make himself understood by them than it is for a Bulgarian to do so. Of the geographical conditions the writer states:

Macedonia does not even belong to Bulgaria geographically, while with Serbia it forms a geographical unity. The valley of the Vardar, the principal Macedonian river, is only the continuation of the Serbian valley of the Morava. Thus it is that the main line of communication between the Danube and Salonica, passing through the valley of the Morava, naturally continues its course by the valley of the Vardar toward Salonica.

On the other hand, Macedonia is divided from Bulgaria by great chains of mountains, rendering impossible any free communication between the two regions, to such a degree that if Macedonia should be ceded to Bulgaria the communication between an eastern and a western Bulgaria would have to be over Serbia by way of Nish, just as is the case now. With the cession of Macedonia to Bulgaria, this state would thrust itself like a wedge between Serbia and Greece, acquiring a form so far unknown in a national territory.

Hence, for Serbia, the cession of Macedonia is not equivalent to parting with a contiguous province, without the possession of which she could continue undisturbed her national life. If this were so, Serbia would not have spilled her blood so freely to gain Macedonia. In fact, this province, not only because of its resources and its economic value, but also because of its geographic position, is the *most important Serbian province*.

Across Macedonia runs the railway from Belgrade to Salonica, and at the present time the whole trade of Serbia goes by way of this province. Even when Serbia shall have territory of her own on the Adriatic, a great part of Serbian commerce will still pass across Macedonia to the Adriatic. This being the state of things, can Serbia renounce this province and yield it to Bulgaria, against whom she has waged a bloody war in its defense from assault? And is it either fit or proper to ask if Serbia, after all her sacrifices for the liberation of her blood relations, that she should perform such a mutilation of her body politic? Let us for one moment suppose what Italy would reply, if she were asked to cede Lombardy or Liguria in exchange for liberal compensation in Asia Minor or in some other part of the world. Would not her answer be, Never!

BULGARIA'S ATTITUDE

IT seems at this critical juncture of the war as if Bulgaria held the key to the situation. Both belligerents have made the most strenuous efforts to influence her course. In view of the immense importance of her decision, an article by a Bulgarian in the August *Revue de Paris*, giving the reasons of Bulgaria's hesitating, calculating attitude, is of unusual interest. To give the gist of his contentions:

In order to comprehend those reasons, he begins, we must go back three years, to the Balkan war, for the present situation is the outcome of the events of 1912. When in that year the Balkan States, united for the first time in centuries, went to war against Turkey,—whose power in Europe had been made possible by their dissensions,—it was unquestionably Bulgaria upon whom fell the heaviest task. She had then,—as she has now,—the largest army, and a superior standing abroad. The Turks, who regarded Bulgaria as their principal adversary, directed their main attacks against her. It was the Battle of Lule Burgas and the strategic pursuit of the Turks that decided the conflict—the Turks could not advance a step further. But the effort had been severe; and when, after the protracted London negotiations, the war was continued, it was the Bulgarian army that bore the brunt of the fighting, repulsed the Turks, and, by a brilliant feat of arms, secured peace by a threat, which it was able to carry out, of marching upon Constantinople.

The responsibility for the second Balkan war rests, the writer asserts, upon all the Balkan States. The Bulgarians can, however, justly say that the Serbs and Greeks in agreeing, in February, to retain and divide Macedonia, assigned to Bulgaria by the treaties of 1912, had desired that war and prepared for it.

Violating the principle of nationalities,—the great idea of modern times,—the Treaty of Bucharest wrested the Dobrudja from Bulgaria, leaving the latter's frontiers about where they were before the war, thus nullifying the result of her efforts and giving to others the countries secured by her hard-won victories.

Hence Bulgaria's sore, crushed feeling, a feeling that Europe had done her a great injustice, and one of resentment against her old allies.

Does that mean that Bulgaria's present attitude is one of stubborn rancor, and that



KING FERDINAND OF BULGARIA

she cannot be counted upon under any circumstances?

No, and it is important to correct a misconception of the present war. Bulgaria has repeatedly been accused of entering into agreements with the enemies of the Entente, and when the government announced its intention of abiding by the neutrality it had, in the interest of the country, proclaimed at the outset of the war, it was received with skepticism. In addition to other charges, it has been said that King Ferdinand is the supreme obstacle to an understanding with the Allies,—an assertion betraying scant knowledge of King and country. He is, to be sure, connected by birth with Germany and Austria, but he is, likewise, the grandson of Louis Philippe, and is deeply attached to France, drawn to it by his education and his tastes. Moreover, since the twenty-seven years of his reign over Bulgaria, to whose advancement he has so powerfully contributed, he has so completely identified himself with his people that he is inspired solely by their wishes and feelings.

Now, the Bulgarian nation, despite its bitter memories of two years ago, has not changed its sentiments. It bears in grateful remembrance the war of liberation undertaken by Russia, and cherishes the memory of

Alexander II, the liberator, with pristine devotion. Nor have the sympathies of the people for France undergone a change, despite the unjust campaign against Bulgaria of a large part of the French press two years ago. They are drawn to her by kindred tastes and aspirations, by the intellectual and moral advantages gained by their youth in the universities of France. If Bulgaria, then, has not yet joined the Quadruple Entente, it is not for the reasons that have been unjustly attributed to her. In politics sentiments are, for that matter, not the only things that count; in every country there are certain essential, supreme interests, particularly in momentous crises, which determine it to act or to refrain from action.

Let us see, then, what the important facts are that determined the course pursued by the Bulgarian Government up to the present.

First of all we must mention the exhaustion consequent upon the two Balkan wars. This exhaustion, very real and considerable, despite the energetic efforts of the people, is an important factor from two points of view. Firstly, Bulgaria could not support a long war without grave risks to its economic development. The effort might be intense, but it could hardly extend beyond a few months. In the second place, the Bulgarians,—one must have the courage to say so frankly,—do not want war. They do not, they cannot desire it, for the memory of their sufferings is still too fresh. In 1913 of a nation of four millions, 600,000 were under the colors. The people experienced the most awful horrors of war,—hunger, thirst, cold, cholera, and later, the sorrow of retreat, the vision of their devastated country.

And then the peasants,—and they form nine-tenths of the population,—are always opposed to war. They, like the French peasantry, are devotedly attached to the soil, which nourishes them from childhood to the grave; war would mean to abandon it anew.

Why give further reasons? Let us just imagine the state of feeling in France two years after this fearful war and how those would be greeted who should speak of a new campaign.

Fortunately in Bulgaria,—and here we enter the heart of the matter,—there exists a lever which can start the armies to march once more. She has a "national ideal," and in order to realize that,—but for that alone,—she is capable of enduring the hardships and running the risks of another war. Gaining its political independence in 1878, Bulgaria began at once the work of liberating Macedonia,—aroused its people to a sense of nationality, demanded for it a more humane régime, demonstrated to Europe Bulgaria's rights over it. This work has been her ceaseless preoccupation since twenty-five years,—it is her supreme aim.

Macedonia has often been compared to Alsace-Lorraine,—justly so as far as a national sentiment for Bulgaria is concerned; but to make the comparison complete, Alsace-Lorraine would have to equal in extent and population the half of France as Macedonia does the half of Bulgaria.

And that is why the Bulgarians have always subordinated everything to the question of Macedonia. That is why they have never ceased to talk and think of it; *that is why the people cannot be induced to go to war to-day unless they are guaranteed the possession of that province.*

Bulgaria consented, through political necessity, to cede a part of Macedonia to Serbia; but she did not consider the sacrifice irrevocable. It was known at Sofia that the day would come when Serbia would seek to realize her national aspirations as regards Bosnia and Herzegovina, and that day Bulgaria, in return for her active aid or friendly neutrality, could demand the retrocession of Bulgarian territory, temporarily ceded to Serbia.

"If then," the writer observes, "Bulgaria enters into an engagement to-morrow, will she demand the whole of Macedonia? We lack the information necessary to enable us to answer that question at the present moment; but it is possible, since she considers that province equally Bulgarian throughout its entire extent."

Certain districts ceded to Greece by the Treaty of Bucharest should likewise, the writer claims, be yielded to Bulgaria, they being absolutely indispensable to her. These pretensions, he adds, may at a first glance appear extravagant. But they are explained and justified if one considers the territorial gains that Serbia would and Greece might make should the Quadruple Entente be victorious.

It is widely and erroneously believed that if Bulgaria should decide to fight the Turks, it would mean for her merely a military promenade.

Outside of the Ottoman forces actually engaged in the Dardanelles, the Turks have a great nucleus in the rear, equaling several army corps, and constituting the main body of their army. The objective of this army is to attack any new antagonist that might appear, whether in the Gulf of Saros or from Bulgaria.

To compass the fall of Constantinople, one would first have to become master of the peninsula of Gallipoli and of the vast entrenched field extending from Tchatalja to the Bosphorus. These two positions will be fiercely contested, because the Young Turks and the Germans, who hold the army in their hands, will fight to the last extremity,—the former to defend their country and their lives, the latter to retard to the limits of the possible a success which would be sure to react upon the course of operations in Central Europe.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

MR. LLOYD GEORGE CONFERRING WITH REPRESENTATIVES OF MINE OWNERS AND OPERATIVES PRIOR TO HIS SETTLEMENT OF THE WELSH COAL STRIKE

TRADE-UNIONISM HAMPERING ENGLAND

ENGLAND'S greatest lack in this, her time of sorest need, it is now known to all the world, is not the lack of soldiers, or of men willing to become soldiers and to offer up their lives for her on the field of battle, but is the lack of munitions of warfare,—high-explosive shells, and other materials and implements of war equipment,—which are demanded in unprecedented quantities by the present appalling conflict. And responsibility for that lack of munitions, the evidence is unmistakable, rests largely with England's industrial workers (or, rather, shirkers) at home. The munitions industry, it appears, is dominated by an antiquated and almost unbelievably callous and selfish trade-unionism, which receives a scathing castigation at the hands of Mr. W. Errol Muir in an enlightening paper on "The Engineers and the War" contributed by him to the *English Review* for August.

Taking for his text the statement of Mr. Lloyd George that "This is an engineers' war," and using the term "engineer" in a

specifically British sense that is hardly known in America (a sense for which the handiest equivalent in United States English, perhaps, is "machinist"), Mr. Muir first of all defines his term by saying that "Engineers proper may be divided into fitters and turners, and for each of these branches an apprenticeship of five years is served. A third class of engineer is the machinist or semi-skilled man, who is developed by training men of any class to work certain machine tools." A turner is essentially the worker of a turning-lathe. The fitter assembles and puts together parts on which the machining has already been done. These two classes are the recognized skilled workers who form the backbone of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers; while the machinists have various unions of their own, but are also eligible for membership (though not as full members) of the A. S. E.

The engineer's position at present is that his hourly wages are at the highest point they have ever reached in the history of the trade; in the

majority of establishments by the operation of piecework and bonus systems, he can still further add to his earnings by a little application and intelligence. Further, his union has built up for him a system of allowances of all sorts and conditions, which operate to his advantage. . . .

After detailing the method of dealing with wage questions which is recognized and established between the Amalgamated Society of Engineers and several other unions and the Engineering Employers' Federation, which comprises 90 per cent. of the leading employers of the country, the writer says:

At the beginning of the war the spirit of the Engineering Unions was admirable, so long as there was a fear of depression and wholesale unemployment. They met the masters in conference and measures were adjusted to take care of the situation then foreshadowed; shops were to be kept on short time instead of discharging men, transference of workmen to centers where naval and military work was in execution was to take place from areas where business was at a standstill, and the *status quo* as to wages was to be observed. Altogether a spirit of mutual helpfulness was the note of these meetings, but very soon a change took place. Orders from the War Office and the Admiralty soon filled up the regular Government contractors and overflowed into all sorts of engineering shops; small shops found themselves in demand as sub-contractors, and instead of unemployment there came suddenly a shortage of men, as many had enlisted on the outbreak of war. All the orders were urgent, and instead of short time, overtime began to be worked everywhere, to cope with the torrent of work which the Government Departments let loose. . . .

Then the A. S. E. began to wake up and get busy. Here were the conditions ready made, which they had often dreamed of with only a wistful hope that they would ever be realized. For years the men had been taught that the employer was the enemy, that he exploited labor for his own private benefit, that he regarded his men simply as means to the end of his own aggrandizement. . . . Now the employer was delivered into their hands. The necessity of the nation was imperative, no stoppage would be tolerated, and the country would look with impatience and disfavor on any dispute for wages at such a time. The temptation was too much for the men, and from all over the country evidences began to accumulate that they had decided "to get some of their own back." The Clyde strike was an extreme example of the spirit that began to prevail. . . . A fortnight's work at a most critical time involving dislocation and delay on hundreds of the nation's contracts was absolutely lost and irrecoverable.

But this is only the first count in the arraignment, and not the strongest one, according to this writer. He continues:

Humiliating as the spectacle was of men deliberately going on strike and curtailing the supply of war equipment while their brothers were fighting in the trenches, it has been eclipsed by their behavior in the shops since the later weeks of August, in a manner which only the harassed

and heart-sick employer can understand. The spirit which has been displayed is almost beyond belief, and has taken the form of a stubborn and active campaign against any methods or arrangements which might secure the increased productivity of the works, and the imposition of restrictions and insistence on Trade Union "principles" continued unceasingly and in the most aggravated form. Disputes to enforce the manning of certain machines by skilled men in place of semi-skilled when every skilled man was required for special work occurred in several shops. Petty grievances of all kinds were magnified and fomented to the detriment of steady work and output. . . .

Shop managers were afraid to introduce inventions to secure greater efficiency in production in case of trouble, and any departure from ordinary peace-time conditions of working was the sign for threats of stoppage. Obsolete practises and claims, which could not be enforced upon the employers in normal times, were resuscitated and insisted upon. Concessions were made to endeavor to avoid difficulties, but every concession has been seized upon and utilized as a jumping-off place for something more.

Several examples are narrated in detail of the ways in which the Amalgamated Society of Engineers "sought at a most critical period of the war to insist upon their own ideals at the expense of the country and to coerce the employers into acceptance of conditions which the Union had been unable to enforce in peace time." Naturally, this reactionary spirit was not known to the public generally. One measure after another was tried by the government to overcome it. Several firms secured men from Canada, the United States, and elsewhere; and volunteer labor, clerks, stockbrokers, teachers, even clergymen, offered services, but the unions declined to permit them to start. All sorts of inducements were of no avail.

In any well-organized, modern establishment an increase in output from 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. can be attained if trade-union restrictions are removed, and this without injury to the well-being of any worker. This margin can be attained in the majority of cases by working the machine tools themselves to the capacity intended by the designers, which can readily be done without imposing any extra exertion, either physical or mental, on the tool attendant. But the old fallacy that the longer a job can be made to last the better for the workman retains its hoary supremacy, and is acted upon to its limit in the shops under the domination of the A. S. E. . . .

The Government misjudge, and have misjudged all along, the psychology of the workers, and to their error of judgment is largely due the industrial chaos of to-day. Neither the workman nor their leaders will accept strong measures voluntarily, or as the result of arguments and discussion, but they look to the Government as having a single eye to the national good and a single purpose to achieve. And if strong measures are necessary to secure that purpose, they will accept them and feel the better for

their acceptance, even although they may indulge in their necessary prerogative of a preliminary grumble.

The Minister of Munitions enters upon his office with the confidence of the country that he has a single aim ahead of him; let him on his part trust the country to back him in any measure,

however strong, which will wipe away the intolerable incubus which has settled upon the industry of our workshops, and in any action to secure the means of shortening by a single day the sacrifice of the best of our nation's manhood to the callous and irreconcilable selfishness of trade-union principles.

REFRIGERATED MEATS FOR ITALY'S ARMIES

ONE of the great problems in the world-war has been, of course, the provisioning of the millions of men on and behind the fighting lines, and here, as in so many other instances, the modern appliances worked out in the past decades have been found of incalculable value. This is notably the case with the application of cold-storage and freezing to the preservation of animal tissues. By this means the European countries have been able to draw upon America and Australasia for a considerable part of their meat supplies, instead of being forced to drain their own rural districts of their flocks and herds. That this policy should be consistently carried out in Italy as in England and France, is the contention of Signor Massimo Tortelli in an article in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome).

The writer notes the experience of France where, at the outset of the war, an attempt was made to requisition a large part of the cattle and concentrate them in a number of preserves, where they could be slaughtered as occasion demanded, and the fresh meat transported to the army. It was soon found, however, that the supplies would be insufficient, and also that fresh meat was not as available for provisioning troops as was refrigerated or frozen meat, since the latter, especially, would preserve its freshness while it was in transit, even when several days, or perhaps weeks, elapsed before it could be used.

Thus, while at the outset of the war France levied a heavy duty upon imported meats, as much as 35 francs per quintal (220 lbs.), a decree issued August 2, 1914, abolished this impost, only retaining a charge of one franc for the cost of inspection. As a result, the quantity of refrigerated meat imported in the first six months of 1915 reached a total of 150,000 metric tons, representing about 450,000 head of cattle and being nearly half the total quantity of meat normally consumed in France. This example is held up by the writer for imitation in Italy, where so

far this year only very small quantities of refrigerated meats have been imported. Of the ill effects of this, Signor Tortelli says:

Now I do not hesitate to affirm that if the indications gathered can be accepted as probative, we are approaching a real disaster; for even by draining the farms of their cattle it will be impossible to secure meat in sufficient quantity to satisfy the increased consumption necessitated by a state of war, not even by paying an exorbitant price for the supply. For we have to deal with another unfavorable factor that statistics bring to light, namely, that our reserves of cattle are smaller this year than in former years. While the importation of cattle has decreased, the normal exportation has not grown less. . . . Why it is that at the opening of our war, regarded as inevitable for nine months, we should find ourselves in these unsafe conditions as to the supply of this indispensable aliment is inexplicable for me and still more difficult is it for me to understand that now, when the need of making some provision is most pressing, and indeed imperative, we can suppose this can be done by having recourse to the old method of an exclusive dependence upon the home supply, and subject ourselves to the bad results inherent in this system, with the inevitably recurrent rise in prices until a figure is reached which will be prohibitive for a great part of our population. And this is all the stranger that only three years ago our land was one of the foremost in its acceptance of the new methods. The Italian army, in fact, was the second, after the English army, to adopt for the provisioning of its soldiers and marines the most modern and rational meat diet, I intentionally say the most rational, since it is at once the most economical, the most wholesome, and the cheapest.

That a liberal meat ration is of prime importance to maintain the vigor of troops in active warfare, and that of those workers upon whom war imposes additional or harder labor, is the opinion of this writer and with a few exceptions that of most of those qualified to judge of the matter, and as Italy has full and free commerce with the great cold-storage houses of England, with their abundant supplies of refrigerated meats from America, New Zealand, and Australia, she has no excuse for not availing herself of these opportunities.

THERAPEUTIC VALUE OF HYPNOTISM

ONE of the most absorbing subjects of recent medical study is that of the degree in which the physical condition can be affected by mental states or processes, and the method by which such affection is caused. Since violent emotions instantly produce such marked bodily symptoms as blushing, pallor, trembling, dizziness, or unconsciousness, or even in extreme cases, death itself, it is natural that the conclusion should be drawn that less violent but more continuous mental conditions should likewise produce deeper-seated and more permanent alterations in the body.

Modern science is prepared to grant that this conclusion is justified in many cases. Unfortunately, however, the subject is one which lends itself with peculiar facility to exploitation by the ignorant, the self-deluded, and the conscious charlatan. It is well, therefore, that reputable experts should make known to the general public the facts as to the proper extent of the application of "mental healing."

In a recent number of the *Revue de Psychothérapie* (Paris), Dr. Joire discusses the value of hypnotism as an agent of such healing, bringing out certain points not generally known. He begins by the uncompromising declaration that hypnotism can be made to fortify feeble wills and cure sick and vacillating wills. Contrary to a widely spread opinion, he holds that a person who has been treated by hypnotism is always more master of himself, and with stronger will-power than other people. Concerning the fear which restrains many from seeking relief in hypnotism, namely that they may remain unduly under the power of the hypnotizer, he remarks that such enslavement is often heard of in newspaper stories and in tales of fiction, but not in real life. He says apropos of this:

There are people who are weak-natured and easily influenced who allow their actions to be directed by others. It is much to the interest of such persons to fortify their own will-power. Even professional hypnotic subjects are not the slaves of those who hypnotize them. One does not change the *nature* of the subject by hypnotizing him. A thief remains a thief and an honest man remains honest; even when hypnotized they do not appreciate things in the same fashion. It is said a suggestion must be carried out; but if such suggestion is repugnant to the conscience of the subject he transforms it.

Instead of *realizing* the suggestion he falls into a state of hypnosis which lasts several instants and the effect of the suggestion passes away. This striking and obvious experiment demonstrates the phenomenon of conscience preventing a suggestion from being realized.

Dr. Joire believes that this argument removes all possible objection to the employ of hypnotism as a therapeutic agent capable of giving efficient and valuable aid to the physician who understands its proper use, and he thus states its function: To cure sometimes, to alleviate often, to console always. But he stresses the fact that the hypnotizer must be *competent*, quoting Dr. Berillon's dictum that a hypnotist-physician cannot be improvised any more readily than a trained oculist. Contrary to the belief that hypnotism can be properly employed only in nervous maladies he claims that its empire is far vaster.

Hypnotism acts by means of the nervous system as an intermediary; but the nervous system dominates the whole organism. The muscles are made to move by the nerves; the nerves regulate the circulation by their direct action on the heart and by action on the blood-vessels which they dilate or contract. The nerves, therefore, act upon all the organs, and by their means one may apply treatment to sick organs.

No one contests the fact that nervous maladies belong essentially in the domain of hypnotism. Hysteria, with all its very diverse manifestations can be treated efficaciously and completely cured by hypnotism alone. Epilepsy finds in various more complex hypnotic applications an efficacious remedy, which in many cases permits us to achieve a cure.

Neurasthenia, a malady essentially of our century, due to exhaustion, whether by work, by affairs, by pleasures, is surely cured by the hypnotic method. Unhappily many patients do not decide to have recourse to it until precious time has been lost in trying a swarm of other treatments, which prove inefficacious and serve only to discourage them.

But Dr. Joire maintains that many maladies other than nervous ones may be ameliorated by hypnotic treatment. Thus, in tuberculosis patients, especially in the early stages, appetite may be restored by such means, thus building up strength to fight the infection. He shows how these and other unfortunates may be aided by suggestion.

Their painful insomnia may be combated, their strength restored, and their weight astonishingly augmented. In digestive troubles suggestion acts efficaciously by means of the muscles of the stomach and intestines. In all circulation troubles we may operate as we have said, by the nerves which constrict or dilate the vessels, in such wise as to increase or diminish the circulation, to draw the blood towards certain organs, or to relieve them of congestion.

The curative action of hypnotism and suggestion is also of capital importance to correct certain faults or vicious habits. Alcoholism, that social sore of our times, has long been treated with success by suggestion.

THE OCCUPATIONS OF A PUEBLO INDIAN GIRL

"IT is said that the Pueblo Indians are a lazy people, but that seems strange to me, for I do not remember ever passing an idle day in my home. My mother believed that if we were not kept at work, Satan would find mischief for idle hands, so she was careful to keep us all busy at some kind of work."

This answer to the assertion that the Pueblo Indians are lazy was written by Carmen Montion, a Yaqui Indian girl from El Paso, Texas, in a Hampton anniversary essay, "Occupations of a Pueblo Indian Girl," published in the August number of the *Southern Workman*. It is true that the Pueblos have always been industrious. They were house-builders, weavers, potters, and successful herdsmen and farmers as far back as we have any history of the tribes. The most important Indian house ruins are those traditionally built by the Pueblos. Weaving cotton on looms of their own devising was a general industry among them before the Franciscan missionaries introduced sheep in the sixteenth century. Afterward the Navahos, enlarging upon their teaching, developed the weaving of the Navaho blanket. Their pottery has always been considered exceptionally beautiful. It is smooth and painted with symbolic designs. Among the Hopi Pueblos basket-making and wood-carving was brought to a high degree of perfection.

Carmen Montion's earliest memories are of the days when she was sent out to herd the sheep and goats:

In the early morning, about sunrise, I got up, ate my breakfast, prepared my lunch,—which consisted of *mocasinie*, or dried meat, and a piece of bread. I took this in my little *tewa*, or skin-bag, out to the corral, where the sheep and goats were kept. I let down the bars, and the sheep and goats went out to

their pasture, where I remained with them all day.

Later recollections bring to my mind the shearing of the sheep in the latter part of the month of May. . . . The wool was cut and washed. After it was dried it was carded by means of a small implement something like the currycomb commonly used on horses. It was then combed with a coarse five-toothed comb like a small rake. When it was at this stage my mother colored it with Indian dyes made by extracting the coloring matter from roots, herbs, and the barks of trees. She then spun it into yarn, to be used for various weaving purposes.

During the winter months the little Indian girl helped her mother with the carding and weaving. The Pueblo Indian blankets, which are similar to the Navaho blankets except for the distinctive tribal design, are woven during the long winter months by the women.

At most times during the winter months they may be seen, at a distance from their huts, seated at their looms. The weaving outfit called a loom is very simple,—two sticks on which strings are hung, a long, flat stick to ram the threads with, one shaped like a cylinder to keep them straight, and a small one like a comb to prevent tangles, and nothing more.

Sometimes the seven-year-old girl was permitted to go with the older women to get clay for the Pueblo pottery; at other times she was set at work grinding corn for the



INDIAN WOMEN GRINDING CORN

(From the *Southern Workman*, Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute)

family use. The latter task she very much disliked.

Corn is ground on a *metate*, or stone slab, which is built thus: In one corner of the room is a *metate* for grinding corn. Two boards parallel, and, about two feet apart, are fixed on the floor, with just room enough behind the inner one for a woman to kneel between it and the wall. Between these boards there are placed at an angle smooth stones sunken in sloping beds of adobe plaster, so as to make them perfectly firm. It was behind such a slab that I used to kneel when grinding corn. I put in the amount of corn to be ground and with a stone implement something like a rolling pin I worked it all up and down on the slab, as we do when we wash, and ground it as fine as desired.

After the corn was ground it was ready to be used for *tamales* or bread. Paper bread is a favorite food with the Pueblos. I mixed coarse meal with water and a little salt, to about the consistency of very thin cream; then I heated a smooth, flat stone almost white-hot by a fire underneath, and with a dextrous fling of the hand I threw a handful of the mixture across the stone, so as to cover it. Immediately I caught

it by one corner and peeled it from the stone, a thin, papery layer, laying it to one side. Both movements required great dexterity, or the hand as well as the bread would have been burned. Subsequent layers are made and laid over the first, while they are still hot, until the pile is an inch thick. It is then folded up as if it were indeed a bunch of paper, and is ready to be eaten immediately or to be kept indefinitely. It tastes like salted parched corn and it looks much like a piece of hornet's nest, for the blue corn of which this bread is usually made turns grayish green when cooked.

Miss Montion concludes her essay with a re-statement of the forlorn fact that the old Indian life is rapidly vanishing. The tribes are assimilating new methods of living—adopting the white man's house, his clothing, and his food; and the picturesque methods of cookery, weaving, pottery, and agriculture will soon be but a memory even in the minds of those who in youth, like this Indian girl, learned the whole domestic formula of Pueblo life.

GERMANY FINDS SUBSTITUTES FOR COFFEE

ONE of the food supplies which the war has cut short in Germany is coffee, and with their usual thoroughness and practical efficiency the Germans have been classifying and appraising the possible substitutes. The stimulating and bracing effect of coffee is, of course, chiefly due to the percentage of caffeine which it contains, and to this is due likewise the various troubles, nervous or digestive, which overindulgence in strong coffee may cause.

However, the sense of comfort and well-being derived from a good cup of coffee is partly due to other qualities besides its content of this drug. In the first place it provides an admirable means of furnishing the body with the large amount of water which it requires, especially in hot summers and when the water supply is poor or bad. Secondly, part of its effect is due to the aromatic and other properties produced by the process of roasting the berry.

While this water need may be also supplied by wine, beer, and various "soft drinks," these secondary properties can be furnished by various other raw products when properly roasted and prepared. According to the *Naturwissenschaften* (Berlin) the preparation of such substitutes has already attained considerable commercial importance in Ger-

many. In this journal it is stated:

Since all coffee substitutes lack the most important constituents of real coffee, caffeine and coffee-oil, they cannot exert the favorable stimulation derived from moderate indulgence in coffee. On the other hand, they lack the frequently harmful effects of constant use of strong coffee. But the various substances produced by roasting, especially empyreumatic matter, play a significant part in nutrition, whether because they favor the excretion of certain digestive juices by their appetizing odor and taste, or whether they measurably check processes of corruption in the intestine, and thus react favorably on the bodily health.

Such substitutes are much made from edible roots, such as chicory, turnips, and dandelion. Also out of substances which are rich in sugar, such as figs, dates, honey-locust (*Johannis brot*), and burnt sugar.

A variety of raw materials rich in starch is likewise employed, including roasted grains such as rye, barley, and wheat; pod-fruits, especially lupine and soya-beans, with rare beans, peas, etc., and acorns. The latter are in especial favor to make a drink for children suffering from diarrhoea, on account of their content of tannic acid. Furthermore some fat-containing substances are used, including peanuts, date-kernels, and asparagus-berries. Finally use is made of grape-seeds, haws, the hips of wild roses (either with or without the fleshy-fruit). The empyreumatic products of roasting in all these exert soothing or agreeable influence in various degrees.

These, as well as real coffee, may be impure and adulterated with worthless matter.

HAY-FEVER TREATED BY CALCIUM SALTS

THE "REVIEW OF REVIEWS" was, we believe, the first magazine in this country to place before the American public the remarkable and vitally important results of the investigation by the Munich scientists Dr. Emmerich and Dr. Loew of the part played in the bodily economy by lime and other salts of calcium, such as calcium lactate. Our readers will remember that calcium is an essential constituent of the cell-nucleus in which reside such marvelous potencies. Hence the necessity that its salts be present in abundance in the food of both men and animals.

Very recently these eminent German savants, as well as some of their disciples, have been studying the effect of calcium salts in various specific diseases. Very timely is the account in *Die Naturwissenschaften* (Berlin) for June 4 of their success in treating hay-fever by the calcium treatment. This success seems to be largely due to the effect of calcium in promoting assimilation and nutrition. The article, as summarized from the *Münchener Medizinische Wochenschrift*, says that assimilation of food is essentially increased by an abundant provision of calcium salts, which can be due only to increased formation of enzymes. It continues:

But this is an activity of the cell-nucleus, as proved by the experiments of Hofer.

Further results thereof are the strengthening of the body, an increase in the bactericidal action

of the blood known as phagocytosis, and in general an increase of resistance to various influences tending to produce illness.

Calcium salts also soothe the heightened irritability of the nerves and the tendency to sneezing, etc.

Doctors Emmerich and Loew describe in detail the symptoms of separate cases of hay-fever studied by them, cases sometimes very severe, and their treatment with calcium chloride. According to the article in question there are very few of the so-called constitutional diseases which can be so quickly controlled by any curative process as can hay-fever by calcium chloride, a fact which will spell relief for many thousand sufferers for whom the golden-rod and other pollen-bearing weeds and flowers which line our roads in late summer and early fall are signals of hardly borne torment or hardly won immunity by flight.

Features which specially enhance the value of this method are its low cost, its simplicity and ease of application and the fact that the calcium treatment as tried and earnestly recommended by Emmerich and Loew is not only entirely harmless but variously beneficial.

Many other investigators are publishing evidence as to successful handling of diseases of the most diverse character by the calcium treatment. . . . In short, it is claimed that this treatment is highly effective, acting physiologically by its effect on nutrition.

PERSONALITY IN FOLK-MUSIC

MR. PERCY GRAINGER, the young Australian pianist-composer who has been spending the greater part of the last year in America and some of whose compositions were among the most striking novelties performed at the leading orchestral concerts in several American cities in the last musical "season," has done more probably than any other living composer to revive interest in folk-music and also to arouse interest in exotic musical systems,—particularly those of China and the South Sea Islands.

He has traveled widely in the pursuit of his hobby, and has gathered together a remarkably extensive collection (perhaps the largest and most comprehensive in the world) of phonograph records of folk-tunes from

almost all quarters of the world, a collection amounting to some four hundred examples. To the current issue of the *Musical Quarterly* Mr. Grainger contributes a very interesting discussion of "The Impress of Personality in Unwritten Music," based in part on an exhaustive examination of that collection of records, and in part on his personal experiences and experiments in exotic musical fields.

Taking it as a very hopeful sign that the present widespread interest in unwritten music ("be it European or Afro-American folk-songs and dances or native music from any quarter of the globe") apparently does not emanate from any reaction against the latest iconoclastic developments of our writ-

ten art-music, but that "it is mainly in the ranks of the most highly cultured musicians that we meet with the keenest interest in this 'back to the land' movement," he says:

While so many of the greatest musical geniuses listen spellbound to the unconscious, effortless musical utterances of primitive man, the general educated public, on the other hand, though willing enough to applaud adaptations of folk-songs by popular composers, shows little or no appreciation of such art in its unembellished original state, when, indeed, it generally is far too complex (as regards rhythm, dynamics, and scales) to appeal to listeners whose ears have not been subjected to the ultra-refining influence of close association with the subtle developments of our latest Western art-music.

After citing the case of Grieg as typical, and pointing out how much more the Norwegian genius owed the unique originality of his music to the strength of his own purely personal inventiveness than to any particular external or "national" source whatever, he continues.

As a rule folk-music finds its way to the hearts of the general public and of the less erudite musicians only after it has been "simplified" (generally in the process of notation by well-meaning collectors ignorant of those more ornate subtleties of our notation alone fitted for the task) out of all resemblance to its original self. Nor is this altogether surprising when we come to compare town populations with the countryside or "savage" folk to whom we go for the unwritten material.

With regard to music, our modern Western civilization produces, broadly speaking, two main types of educated men. On the one hand, the professional musician, or leisured amateur-enthusiast, who spends the bulk of his waking hours making music, and on the other hand, all those many millions of men and women whose lives are far too overworked and arduous, or too completely immersed in the ambitions and labyrinths of our material civilization to be able to devote any reasonable proportion of their time to music or artistic expression of any kind at all. How different from either of these types is the bulk of uneducated and "uncivilized" humanity of every race and color, with whom natural musical expression may be said to be a universal, highly prized habit that seldom, if ever, degenerates into the drudgery of a mere means of livelihood.

Mental leisure and ample opportunity for indulging in the natural instinct for untrammelled and uncriticised and untaught artistic self-expression; these are the conditions imperative for the production and continuance of all unwritten music. Now primitive modes of living, however terrible some of them may appear to some educated and refined people, are seldom so barren of "mental leisure" as the bulk of our civilized careers. The old ignorant, unambitious English yokel, for instance, had plenty of opportunity for giving way to his passion for singing. He sang at his work (plough-songs are very general) just as the women folk sang when "waulking" wool. I need hardly mention that "work-songs" of

every description form a very considerable part of the music of primitive races the world over.

Because of the commercial slavery of our civilization, with us moderns life encroaches upon art, whereas with uneducated or primitive folk the reverse seems more often to be the case. "Their lives, their speech, their manners, even their clothes, all show the indelible impress of a superabundance of artistic impulses and interests."

H. G. Wells, the novelist, who was with me during a "folk-song hunt" in Gloucestershire, on noticing that I noted down not merely the music and dialect details of the songs, but also many characteristic scraps of banter that passed between the old agriculturists around us, once said to me: "You are trying to do a more difficult thing than record folk-songs; you are trying to record life." . . . But I felt then as I feel now, that it was the superabundance of art in these men's lives, rather than any superabundance of life in their art, that made me so anxious to preserve their old saws and note their little habits. . . .

I need hardly say that natural artists of this order sing or play without self-consciousness of any kind, and anything resembling "stage-fright" seems unknown to them. When such an one refuses to let himself be heard, it is, more often than not, because he regards his tunes as purely *personal property*, and does not wish to part with them to others any more than he would with his pipe or his hat. I recall the case of a rustic singer, who, in his anxiety to acquire a song from a fellow folksinger of this sort, had to hide himself in a cupboard in order to learn it, as its owner would never have consented to sing it if he had dreamt his performances were being listened to by a rival; and I have myself had to get under a bed in order to note down the singing of an old woman equally chary of passing on her accomplishments to any "Tom, Dick, or Harry."

This feeling of personal ownership of songs is still more strongly shown by many primitive non-European races, notably by the North American Indians.

The primitive musician unhesitatingly alters the traditional material he has inherited from thousands of unknown talents and geniuses before him to suit his own voice or instruments, or to make it conform to his purely personal taste for rhythm and general style. As an illustration of this, Mr. Grainger says:

I once let an old Lincolnshire man (a perfect artist in his way) hear in my phonograph a variant of one of the songs he had sung to me as sung by another equally splendid folksinger, and asked him if he didn't think it fine. His answer was typical: "I don't know about it's being fine or not; I only know it's *wrong*."

After devoting sections of his article to the complexity of folk-music, to pointing out that

all unwritten music exhibits certain common traits, to communal polyphonic improvisation, to a description of Rarotongan part-singing, to musical "Treasure Islands" in the Pacific, and the richness of African rhythms, the writer pays this tribute to "the electrifying Clef Club of the City of New York":

A distant echo of the habits of unwritten music can be traced in the marvelous accomplishments of the colored instrumentalists and singers who make up the New York Clef Club, an organization which could not fail to electrify Europe if presented there, and to hear which it is more than worth one's while to travel across the Atlantic. The compositions they interpret are art-music, and reveal the strict harmonic habits of the written art, but the ease with which those members of the Club who cannot read musical notation learn and remember intricate band and choral parts by heart (often singing tenor and playing bass) and many individualistic and rhapsodical traits in their performances suggest the presence of instincts inherited from the days of communal improvisations.

Concerning what he considers to be "some of the lessons of unwritten music," Mr. Grainger says:

What life is to the writer, and nature to the painter, unwritten music is to many a composer: a kind of mirror of genuineness and naturalness. Through it alone can we come to know something of the incalculable variety of man's instincts for musical expression. From it alone can we glean some insight into what suggests itself as being "vocal" to natural singers whose tech-

nic has never been exposed to the influence of arbitrary "methods." In the reiterated physical actions of marching, rowing, reaping, dancing, cradle-rocking, etc., that called its work-songs, dance-music, ballads and lullabies into life, we see before our very eyes the origin of the regular rhythms of our art-music and of poetic meters, and are also able to note how quickly these once so rigid rhythms give place to rich and wayward irregularities of every kind as soon as these bodily movements and gestures are abandoned and the music which originally existed but as an accompaniment to them continues independently as art for art's sake.

To-day primitive music is still a closed book to most musicians. Mr. Grainger tells how when he was a boy in Frankfort his teacher wished him to enter for the Mendelssohn prize for piano playing, and he asked the pedagogue: "If I should win, would they let me study Chinese music in China with the money?" And the answer was: "No, they don't give prizes to idiots," which is still the attitude of many. But Mr. Grainger believes that the time will soon be ripe for the formation of a world-wide International Musical Society for the purpose of making all the world's music known to all the world by means of imported performances, phonograph and gramophone records and adequate notations, and so on, "until music-lovers everywhere could form some accurate conception of the as yet but dimly guessed multitudinous beauties of the world's contemporaneous total output of music."

"A NEW PROFESSION FOR WOMEN"

MR. EARL BARNES, in the August issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*, outlines a new profession for women which partakes of the nature of social service, affords a comfortable income if managed properly, and furnishes a most attractive field for the energies of college women and all women who have the bookish habit of mind. This "profession" is that of book-selling, but the kind of bookselling that includes missionary work to one's community.

There is a growing demand for books every year, and also a seeming increase of ignorance about books, judgment as to their content, their use, and their place in well-regulated homes. The majority of children that have come under the observation of persons competent to judge of their taste appreciate children's classics and innately love good literature. Parents often fail to build a foundation for a taste for good English by

giving children an overdose of the sentimental drivel that is offered in a certain class of children's books. The educated young woman bookseller should practise guardianship over her trade; she should find out what the community needs—what good book-friends will do for her patrons.

The young woman would have to know something about books as an industrial product, their paper, print and binding. She should be acquainted with the great publishing centers, organizations of publishers and booksellers, and the present machinery for book distribution. Catalogs and trade-lists should be familiar tools to her. She should also know something about the lore of the bibliophile concerning old editions, fine bindings, rare copies, and the like. It would be even more important for her to know the psychology of book buyers and the art of selling; and she must be prepared to make an intensive study of the mental and the social conditions of her community. Added to this she must know something of bookkeeping, banking and general business usage.

This field is open not only to those who can open and maintain a book-shop and can give all their time to their work, but also to students and in particular to teachers who wish to add to their wage by serving as the "connecting link between the publishers and their readers." In this way each school in the country could become a center for the distribution of literature and useful technical books, a lighthouse of learning for the old as well as for the young.

Where it is possible to open a store, other wares may be offered for sale.

Periodicals, music, photographs, and other art-products could be added to the stock, and the desire for social service could be met naturally by making the store a center where people could meet, where they could examine books and periodicals while waiting, and where public opinion could be formed. The store might also sell tickets for concerts and lectures; and the right woman could exercise a large influence in directing the public taste in these matters.

The real service to any community consists in altering erroneous states of mind. The teacher bookseller and the young college woman bookseller, with their knowledge of psychology, could hardly discover a wider avenue of actual usefulness than in directing, through the sale of good books, the formation of intellectual taste and the up-building of praiseworthy ethics in their immediate environments. There are two possible ways of handling book stock, according to Mr. Barnes:

If they had capital enough to invest outright, they could receive the usual bookseller's discount of approximately thirty-three and one third per cent.; if the publisher bore the risk of returns and damaged copies, then the retailer might receive a discount of something like 20 per cent.

Certain publishers offer much that is useful concerning book salesmanship to agents. The Booksellers' League of New York City has established a Booksellers' School, and lectures have been given on the "Making of a Book," "The Psychology of Salesmanship," and like subjects. Mr. B. W. Huebsch is now conducting a course in bookselling at the West Side Y. M. C. A. in New York. In Philadelphia the Girls' Evening School offered a course in bookselling under Mrs. L. W. Wilson; and in Cleveland there is prospect of this work being undertaken. Mr. Barnes calls attention to "The Leipzig School of Booksellers," founded in 1852. In 1913, 430 students were enrolled there.

In answer to the possible objections to this profession for women Mr. Barnes writes:

It would give young women of ability and devotion a wide range of useful exercise for their talents. As industrial agents they would be handling goods that would make for larger intelligence and social betterment. They could help individuals and the community at large. The work would be active and varied, but not too laborious; and they would be meeting men and women under conditions of freedom and security which might naturally lead to their largest possible life. Even if they did not, it would still be an interesting and useful life, independent of the caprice of directors, and admirably fitted for youth, middle age and old age.

The July number of the *Canadian Book News* published in part the interesting address delivered before the convention of the American Booksellers' Association, on the subject of "Books as Merchandise and Something More," by Franklin K. Mathiews, Chief Scout Librarian of the Boy Scouts of America. The address was an admirable plea for the development of the "bookstore as an institution in each community."

He asked communities to support their local bookseller and thus enable him to make a living that will free at least a part of his time to the consideration of his bookshop as a center of influence and education.

Walter A. Mursell writes in "Byways in Bookland" that booksellers must understand the psychology of the book-lover. The bookshop that lures the hungry mind is the shop where the prospective purchaser is given full freedom and never urged to buy.

It must not be one of those bookshops where black-coated, eagle-eyed, obsequious servitors stand at every corner and counter; who pounce upon you the moment you enter the door; who shadow you from shelf to shelf; who pursue you with unwelcome attentions into the second-hand department; who press all sorts of new volumes on your notice; who continually ask what it is you want and what they can do for you. I have not the moral courage to tell them that. I have not the least idea what I want; that I have come there to find out what I want; that the only thing they can do for me is to let me alone. And when by some unlucky chance I happen upon such a shop, I mark it in my black books and shun it forever. But there are other bookshops,—thanks be to heaven!—where they know their business. They leave you to prowling at large, to browse at leisure; and if you go away without making a purchase, they do not scowl, or lift a supercilious eyebrow, or follow you with suspicious glances, as if they thought you had a first edition secreted under your waistcoat; they simply smile and wish you "Good-day," and never even mention an equivalent to "Will ye no come back again?" They understand the peculiar and delicate psychology of the book-lover.

THE NEW BOOKS

WAR, PATRIOTISM, DEMOCRACY

READERS of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS have had the benefit, during the current year, of three important articles by Senator Beveridge, giving his observations in Germany, France, and England, respectively, on the journey that he recently made to those countries for the purpose of studying war-time conditions. He had exceptional opportunities to do this; for the several governments permitted him to visit the trenches and batteries in action, to see battles, to inspect hospitals and prison camps, and, in short, to gain such knowledge of the existing situation as it was possible for a non-combatant to acquire. To what excellent purpose Senator Beveridge used these opportunities our readers have already learned, and their opinion of his capability and keenness as an observer is likely to be confirmed by his new book, "What Is Back of the War?"¹ This volume is very far from being an abstract discussion of the underlying causes of the war, nor does it pretend to give an individual viewpoint. It is rather the result of conversations with representative men and women in Germany, France, and England,—administrators, authors, philosophers, Socialists, capitalists, laborers, peasants. Senator Beveridge acts as interpreter and sets down for our benefit the reasons why the people of these three countries are at war as the people themselves formulate and express them. It is a new kind of "war book."

"In a French Hospital"² gives us the notes of a nurse at the front, the intimate records of experiences in nursing the wounded in a specially privileged hospital under the care of the gentle Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul. The short sketches present wonderful pictures of the courage of the wounded French soldiers and of the devotion of their attendants. It is all for France. That is the explanation of every soldier and of the attendants, from the humblest orderly to the head of the hospital. The author, M. Eydoux-Demians, writes that the French soldiers come back from the trenches "not with their courage drained, broken down, horror stricken, stunned,—not at all. They forget themselves to talk smilingly of the great hope in which we all share." The French text has been sympathetically translated by Betty Yeomans.

President John Grier Hibben, of Princeton University, has compiled four essays and addresses in a volume called "The Higher Patriotism."³ This higher patriotism President Hibben conceives

as our duty to minister to the intellectual, moral and spiritual needs not of one country alone, but of the "world at large,"—to sacrifice the glory of conquest for the reign of universal peace.

Of "Preparedness and Peace," he writes: "Preparedness does not necessarily mean a nation in arms, or a nation inflamed by the false dreams of a militaristic destiny. This is conspicuously illustrated in the case of Switzerland." As to "Might or Right," the only right for which we may ethically use our might is the establishment of the Kingdom of God on earth. In "Martial Valor in Times of Peace," he refuses to entertain the idea that war is a biological necessity; that we "must descend into hell before we can begin to climb the steep ascent of Heaven." He calls upon the young men of the land to serve the purposes of peace,—to organize into "Young America" and use their valor even as did Sir Galahad.

One of the most attractive essays on universal peace, "War and Woman,"⁴ by Henry Clay Hansbrough, ex-United States Senator from North Dakota, argues that since man has failed ignominiously as a harmonizer, woman should take up the task. He suggests their organization throughout the world after the manner of the World Union of Women organized in Geneva, Switzerland, to battle "for just and permanent peace." Incidentally, he points out the advantages which he thinks we might gain by abandoning the Monroe Doctrine and forming an alliance with England and France.

Dr. Mary Putnam-Jacobi's "Common Sense Applied to Woman Suffrage,"⁵ has even greater significance to-day than when it was written, twenty years ago. It is presented in a new edition with an excellent biographical introduction by Frances Maule Björkman. This book is an expansion of the lecture delivered before the Committee on Woman Suffrage of the New York Constitutional Convention of 1894, of which Mr. Joseph H. Choate was chairman. Dr. Jacobi in the main offered the best argument that is put forward by advocates of equal suffrage to-day: To deny women the right to vote holds the nation back from perfecting the democracy that is its avowed ideal. She saw, with Walter Pater, that there is a "general consciousness, a permanent Common Sense, independent indeed of each one of us, but with which we are, each one of us, in communication"; and with Herbert Spencer that "the rights of women must stand or fall with those of men."

¹ What Is Back of the War? By Albert J. Beveridge. Bobbs-Merrill. 430 pp., ill. \$2.

² In a French Hospital. By M. Eydoux-Demians. Duffield. 170 pp. \$1.

³ The Higher Patriotism. By John Grier Hibben. Scribners. 72 pp. 60 cents.

⁴ War and Woman. By Henry Clay Hansbrough. Duffield. 121 pp. \$1.

⁵ Common Sense Applied to Woman Suffrage. By Mary Putnam-Jacobi, M.D. Putnams. 236 pp. \$1.

ESSAYS AND STUDIES IN PHILOSOPHY, ETHICS, AND RELIGION

WOODROW WILSON'S essay, "When a Man Comes to Himself,"¹ is published in an attractive blue binding. The thesis of the essay is stated by the author in a few words: "Moral enthusiasm is not, uninstructed and of itself, a suitable guide to practicable and lasting reformation; and if the reform sought be the reformation of others as well as of himself, the reformer should look to it that he knows the true relation of his will to the wills he would change and guide." When this relation has been discovered a "man comes to himself."

Dr. Josiah Strong, in "The New World Religion,"² gives us a social interpretation of Christianity that will harmonize the material and the spiritual world. He calls upon the spiritually minded to begin a new crusade to rescue the vital teachings of Christ from their tomb and bring about the restoration of the kingdom of heaven on earth.

"The Religion of the Spirit in Modern Life,"³ by Horatio H. Dresser, is a philosophical discussion of spiritual matters that endeavors to determine the efficiency of various types of religion and interpret the Divine Presence in universal terms. A noble and inspiring effort to bring man nearer to God.

"Live and Learn,"⁴ by Washington Gladden, is a series of preachments that tell us how to learn to think, speak, see, hear, give, serve, win, and wait. The author says that they are suitable for all young people from seventeen to seventy, who have not finished their education. Those who have will find no use for it.

Selections from "The Scottish Philosophy of Common Sense,"⁵ edited by G. A. Johnston, lecturer in moral philosophy in the University of Glasgow, are published in "The Open Court Series of Classics of Science and Philosophy, No. 2." The contributions to philosophy of Thomas Reid, Adam Ferguson, James Beattie, and Dugald Stewart are analyzed and placed before the reader freed from stumbling blocks of technical verbiage. Reid's "Philosophy of Common Sense" originated as a protest against that of Hume. As Professor Johnston states, it was a refutation and criticism of Hume, via Locke.

The latest volume of the Studies in History issued by the Faculty of Columbia University is "The Establishment of Christianity and the Proscription of Paganism,"⁶ by Maude Aline

Huttmann, Ph.D., instructor in history at Barnard College. This brilliant dissertation describes the measures taken by the Emperor Constantine and his successors to proscribe and destroy the teachings of the cults of paganism, and also includes the laws regulating pagan worship preserved in the Codes of Justinian and Theodosius, and an outline of the political events of their reigns.

The student will find this book of great assistance in the study of the growth of Christianity. It is scholarly, yet not too technical, and free from personal or religious bias. The text is amply supplied with notes and lists of references. Miss Huttmann calls attention to the fact that in the evolution of races, from time to time, there sets in a syncretistic movement,—a mixing of the old and the new,—in order to preserve the balance of truth. Then a new faith emerges. Christianity was the alembic into which was poured the good of the old religions, in particular the idea of a man-god from the religion of Mithras, and the reverence for Apollo the Sun-god, as a divine and enlightening spirit.

President Wilson has said: "It is very difficult indeed for a man or for a boy who knows Scripture ever to get away from it. It haunts him like an old song. It follows him like the memory of his mother. It reminds him like the work of an old and revered teacher. It forms a part of the warp and woof of his life." A home and school edition of "Bible Stories and Poems,"⁷ from creation to captivity is arranged to give young people a familiarity with the great stories of the Bible, and to serve as an introduction to Hebrew literature. The volume is exquisitely illustrated with Tissot pictures.

"Biblical Libraries,"⁸ by Ernest Cushing Richardson, is a remarkable book. The author has infused great vitality into his subject-matter and clothed his facts with a fresh mintage of phrases that fasten them in the reader's memory. Mr. Richardson gives us the history of libraries from 3400 B. C. to A. D. 150. In regard to the names of ancient libraries, he notes that, according to Diodorus, the library of Osymandas (Rameses II) bore this inscription over the portals, "The Hospital of the Soul."

"A Plea for Christian Science,"⁹ and a challenge to its critics is a revised second edition of Charles Herman Lea's excellent work that explains the tenets of Christian Science teaching and defends their application. Mr. Lea emphasizes the great secret of Mary Baker Eddy's re-statement of the method of Christian healing,—She makes God a practical reality in the daily lives of men. Thus they become of one mind with Christ and are healed in accordance with their ability to realize the operation of spiritual law.

¹ When a Man Comes to Himself. By Woodrow Wilson. Harpers. 38 pp. 50 cents.

² The New World Religion. By Josiah Strong. Doubleday, Page. \$1.50.

³ The Religion of the Spirit in Modern Life. By Horatio H. Dresser. Putnams. 311 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Live and Learn. By Washington Gladden. Macmillan. 159 pp. \$1.

⁵ The Scottish Philosophy of Common Sense. By G. A. Johnston. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 267 pp. \$1.25.

⁶ The Establishment of Christianity and the Proscription of Paganism. By Maude A. Huttmann. Longmans, Green. 257 pp. \$2.

⁷ Bible Stories and Poems. Bible Selections Committee. 351 pp., ill. 35 cents.

⁸ Biblical Libraries. By Ernest Cushing Richardson. Princeton University Press. 252 pp. \$1.25.

⁹ A Plea for Christian Science. By Charles H. Lea. J. M. Dent, London, Eng. 230 pp. \$1.

ESSAYS, CRITICISM, PORTRAITURE

MR. FRANK HARRIS has given us a series of remarkable studies of famous men in his volume of reminiscence and criticism, "Contemporary Portraits,"¹—a book that records his impressions of Carlyle, Renan, Oscar Wilde, Robert Browning, Meredith, Whistler, Swinburne, Verlaine, Anatole France, Richard Burton, and others. These sketches give not only the most vivid word portraits of their subjects ever published in this country, but they also take first rank as creative interpretations of genius. Mr. Harris' critical art is dramatic. He shapes a stage, sets the scenery, and materializes his man, even to his fustian or velvet: If you liken his portraits to actual painting, they are Whistlerian "arrangements," accented with Mr. Harris' signature. If it is a strange Carlyle that he brings to us,—a Carlyle whose gloomy, futile splendors hang upon the peg of Puritanism, we find familiarity in his study of George Meredith. Whistler comes to us as the fine master of pigment and the phrase that he really was; and the limning of Wilde is perhaps the best ever done. The tributes to John Davidson and Richard Middleton,—those majestic suicides,—beyond presenting their lives and personalities, pour forth the bitterness felt by their friends over the neglect and penury they suffered in their lives. Chatterton, Keats, Shelley, Davidson, and Middleton,—all hounded and unrewarded in their lives,—is not this conclusive evidence, he writes, that we do not know "when the gods arrive"?

The most searching analysis of any literary work is given in Mr. Harris' comment on Ernest Renan's "Life of Jesus," and his "St. Paul"; the impression most cryptic and naïve in its simplicity, that of Verlaine; the portrait most concerned with present events, that of Anatole France. It is interesting to note a remark of France's previous to the War. He said: "We French have an ideal of wise and moderate living; we have already the best ordered house in Europe. That is what exasperates us about the German menace. We want to put our house in order, to realize our high ideal of social justice, but we are perpetually hindered by that barbarous menace on our frontier."

"Boon: The Mind of the Race, The Wild Asses of the Devil, and the Last Trump,"² is the latest contribution to book enigmas. It is a series of delightful humorous, witty, and satirical sketches of everything and everybody under the sun, connected by a slender thread of serious intention. Mr. H. G. Wells evidently hides behind the name of the supposititious author,—*"Mr. Reginald Bliss"*. . . The structure of the work reminds the reader of that gift foolery of a box, which when opened reveals another box, and so on until the last is discovered,—a box no larger than a thimble which is quite empty. In the case of "Boon: The Mind of the Race," one finds the "Mind" beneath the author's persiflage and satire, rattling about like a pea. Perhaps this way of presenting truth is according to Boon's idea of conveying all spiritual truths out of a

dark void. The particular truth of the book seems to be the encouragement of the conscious general thinking of the race together,—the organizing of a great orchestra of formative thought from which no instrument can be spared without ruining the harmony,—this general, definite, focalized thought to be the "word made manifest" for our planet.

The story of "The Last Trump" relates that two young men found in a dingy shop in Caledonia Market the trumpet through which the "Last Trump" was to be blown. They took it from the dealer and made ineffectual attempts to blow it. At last one of them tied the mouth-piece to a foot blow-pipe and worked the foot-treadle. There was an explosion, a shock, and the trumpet vanished. But not before a muffled sound had traversed the earth and for a single instant awakened the living and the dead with a burning glimpse of the "Lord God and All His Powers." The vision did not affect humanity greatly. For the most part they were of the mind of the old flower-seller,—*"She saw,—and Mary,—she saw it. But Lord, it don't mean nothing."*

As for the "Wild Asses of the Devil," it is manifestly every good literary man's duty to go hunting after those "wild asses" and see that they are safely herded back on the Plutonian meadows where they belong. Mr. Bliss,—née Wells,—says, plainly enough, that they are militarists.

Dr. Paul Carus has prepared a most satisfying life of Goethe³ that interprets phases of Goethe's life and philosophy that seem to have been neglected. While there is no attempt to show us the poet as a "philosopher proper," he brings out the fact that all of his work takes shape as segments of a circle around the central point of Goethe's cosmic envisioning of the universe, and his extraordinary perception of its entire duplication in the microcosm of the human soul. Because of this philosophical world-conception, Goethe has remained one of the most fascinating and baffling figures in all literature. Dr. Carus considers his ancestry, the immediate facts of his life, his relation to other men of his time, and to the various women whose names have become linked with his fame; his personality, philosophy, literature, and criticism; also, he gives an analysis of "Faust," and copious extracts from his epigrams and poems. The volume has the exquisite perfection of good workmanship, and is illustrated with 335 cuts.

"K'ung Fu Tze,"⁴ a dramatic poem, by Dr. Carus, dramatizes the teachings of Confucius. In a brilliant foreword, he gives the summary of the Chinese world-conception and interesting historical data concerned with the rise of Confucianism. He writes of the Chinese: "They are an ethical nation. They love to ponder on ethics and in actual life are known to be unusually reliable . . . this is true not only of the big business men but of the cooly." Confucius is the teacher of moral good will, and is the "representative type of Chinese manhood in China's classical past."

¹ Contemporary Portraits. By Frank Harris. Mitchell Kennerley. 346 pp. \$2.

² Boon: The Race Mind. By Reginald Bliss. (Intro. by H. G. Wells.) Doran. 345 pp. \$1.35.

³ Goethe. By Paul Carus. The Open Court Publishing Co. 357 pp., ill. \$3.

⁴ K'ung Fu Tze. By Paul Carus. The Open Court Publishing Co. 72 pp. 50 cents.

AMERICAN HISTORY

"A HISTORY of Travel in America,"¹ by Seymour Dunbar, is a marked instance of the interest that may be imparted to a work by the use of original, first-hand materials and sources of information in place of the ordinary and more accessible channels that are so frequently followed in the compiling of histories and various forms of text-books. In each of his four volumes Mr. Dunbar has gone back for his facts to contemporary sources, and not content with exploiting these in text, he has built up a remarkable scheme of illustration which is consistently based on the work of contemporary artists. In no other history of which we are aware can there be found so complete and satisfactory a presentation, in both text and pictures, of the story of American travel and transportation. Perhaps our historians have not fully grasped the importance of travel in the development of our country. It is certainly true that it has meant more to the American people than to any other nation in history. As Mr. Dunbar treats it the term travel connotes practically the whole social movement from colonial times to the completion of the last transcontinental railroad. His work is really a record of American migration, including the settlement of the Mississippi Valley and the Pacific Coast States. Such a record could only have been compiled by the expenditure of an enormous amount of well-directed energy. The product, as it stands, is a credit to American scholarship, as well as a distinct contribution to historical science, while its literary and artistic charm makes it a delight to the general reader. All the methods and adjuncts of travel and transpor-

tation that have been employed from pioneer days to the present, including canoes, steamboats, stage-coaches, pack trains, railroads and canals, are described in detail, and the pictures give to the reader of the present day a realistic conception of the appliances used by our forefathers.

Of the three monographs contained in Volume XXXII of Johns Hopkins' "Studies,"² Professor Trexler's account of slavery in Missouri, with particular reference to the economic features of the system, is perhaps the most noteworthy, both on its own account and as suggestive of further historical research in other slave States.

In the current series of the Johns Hopkins "Studies"³ the first two monographs are exclusively economic,—*"Money and Transportation in Maryland 1720-1765"* and *"The Financial Administration of the Colony of Virginia."*

In the series of "Studies in History, Economics and Public Law," edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University, important recent issues are *"Reconstruction in Georgia,"*⁴ by C. Mildred Thompson; *"The Review of American Colonial Legislation by the King in Council,"*⁵ by Elmer Beecher Russell; and *"The Sovereign Council of New France"*⁶ (a study in Canadian constitutional history), by Raymond Du Bois Cahall. These university studies are each year developing new fields of historical research and treating in detail and with proper perspective many topics heretofore neglected or superficially discussed.

OUT-OF-DOOR BOOKS

"WILD Bird Guests,"⁷ by Ernest Harold Baynes, has a distinctly practical purpose. Mr. Baynes is interested in telling people how to entertain the birds as guests, and to that end he includes in his book chapters on the organization and management of bird clubs, giving a fascinating account of what has been done in Meriden, N. H., his home town, which has become known as "The Bird Village," as a result of following the methods of attracting wild birds which are set forth in his book. There are also chapters on the destruction of birds, their economic and their esthetic values, and suggestions for dealing with their enemies. If these suggestions could be put in practise throughout the country the problem of American wild-bird conservation would be speedily solved.

Although many books have been published within recent years on the general subject of forest conservation, there have been very few detailed accounts of the actual work performed by officials of the forest service in the field. Mr. William P. Lawson has thought it worth while, in *"The Log of a Timber Cruiser,"*⁸ to relate his personal experience as a government forester in southern New Mexico, and he has made his narrative so vivid that any young man who is contemplating government forestry work as a career can probably get from Mr. Lawson's book a clearer and more definite notion of what he will be called upon to do and how he will have to do it than from any other book in print. The actuality of Mr. Lawson's descriptions is vouched for by Gifford Pinchot.

¹ A History of Travel in America. 4 Volumes. By Seymour Dunbar. Bobbs-Merrill. 1529 pp., ill. \$10.

² Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Volume XXXII: Jurisdiction on American Building Trades. By Nathaniel Ruggles Whitney. 182 pp. Slavery in Missouri 1804-1865. By Harrison Anthony Trexler. 259 pp. Colonial Trade of Maryland 1689-1715. By Margaret Shove Morriss. 157 pp. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. \$3.50.

³ Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Volume XXXIII: Money and Transportation in Maryland 1720-1765. By Clarence P. Gould. 176 pp. The Financial Administration of the Colony of Virginia. By Percy Scott Plippin. 95 pp. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. \$1.75.

⁴ Reconstruction in Georgia: Economic, Social, 1865-1872. By C. Mildred Thompson. Columbia University Press, 418 pp. \$1.

⁵ The Review of American Colonial Legislation by the King in Council. By Elmer Beecher Russell. Columbia University Press. 227 pp. \$1.75.

⁶ The Sovereign Council of New France. By Raymond Du Bois Cahall. Columbia University Press. 274 pp. \$2.25.

⁷ Wild Bird Guests. How to Entertain Them. By Ernest Harold Baynes. Dutton. 326 pp., ill. \$2.

⁸ The Log of a Timber Cruiser. By William Pinkney Lawson. Duffield. 214 pp. \$1.50.

ART, ANCIENT AND MODERN

"THE Need for Art in Life"¹ brings us an inspiring collection of lectures by Mr. I. B. Stoughton Holborn. It arrests the reader's attention like a man standing in a crowded street pointing steadfastly at the sky. Through the ardent vision of the author we perceive that because of the selfishness and meanness of that part of life which ministers to practical purposes, we miss seeing the illimitable expanse of art and beauty which constitutes an end in itself. The new morality, as Mr. Holborn sees it, must be a return to the Greek conception and expression of that physical, mental balance that frees the immortal spirit of man to its ultimate glory, which can be truly expressed as "holiness unto the Lord."

The Princeton Monographs in Art and Archaeology are notable contributions to the literature of research. The last volume issued is "The Lost Mosaics and Frescoes of Rome,"² a study prepared by Professor C. R. Morey, of those copies of lost frescoes which once decorated Roman churches, and are now destroyed or so changed by restoration as to bear little resemblance to the originals. The cuts of the frescoes are taken from two folio volumes *Mosaici Antichi* in the Cardinal Albani collection which George the Third purchased in 1762, and which now forms a part of the King's Library at Windsor Castle. With two exceptions the copies belong to the first

period of the classic renaissance of the 12th and 13th centuries. The material is presented in a delightful manner; the minute descriptions of artistic detail will please every student of Roman Art.

One of the by-products, so to speak, of the "See America First" movement is a volume entitled "What Pictures to See in America,"³ by Lorinda Munson Bryant. This is a book that should be owned by everyone who has the leisure to journey across the continent and to stop a few days at important cities. It contains chapters on practically all the important art collections of the country, and there are more of these than most of us are aware of. Furthermore, the traveler might easily pass many of them by were he not informed in advance of their location. So far as we know the attempt has never before been made to tell in a single volume what famous paintings may be found in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Rochester, Buffalo, Toledo, Detroit, Muskegon, Chicago, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, New Orleans, Fort Worth, St. Louis, Sacramento, and San Francisco. After glancing through this volume, with its 237 reproductions of famous paintings, even the art lover who is familiar with the European galleries may conclude that there are American collections worth visiting.

STANDARD LITERATURE

"THE Evolution of Literature,"⁴ a valuable manual of comparative literature which students can hardly afford to be without, is now offered in a popular-priced edition that places it within the reach of everyone. Its author, Professor A. S. Mackenzie, sees literature as a changing social phenomenon, governed by the "Law of Responsiveness," that is "other conditions being equal, literary form and content vary directly with the orientation of mental responsiveness in a given community." He delves down into the customs of primitive peoples to find the inoculation of soil that made fertile the fields of modern literature. The content of the book enlarges upon this general advice: If vitality alone gives permanent value literary to art, this vitality springs from the relationship between literature and humanity; and if we fail to discern this fact in all its bearings, we shall mistake the spurious for the

real. Every aspiring writer should possess this remarkable work.

Thomas Nelson and Sons, Bible Publishers for over fifty years, have added "The Barchester Towers Novels"⁵ of Anthony Trollope to the "New Century Library of Standard Authors." These volumes are a delight to the bibliophile. They are bound in pocket size in genuine leather and printed on India paper. The type is large and clear and the illustrations are in excellent taste. Nearly all the works of the standard English novelists and poets, also Dumas and Hugo, and several American poets and novelists, can be obtained in uniform edition.

The compilers claim for the specimens included in "College Readings in English Prose"⁶ that they represent "a greater range in subject-matter, in typical forms, and in levels of style than other compilations of the same kind."

¹ The Need of Art in Life. By I. B. Stoughton Holborn. G. Arnold Shaw. 116 pp. 75 cents.

² Lost Mosaics and Frescoes of Rome. By Charles R. Morey. Princeton University Press. 70 pp. \$2.

³ What Pictures to See in America. By Lorinda M. Bryant. Lane. 356 pp., ill. \$2.

⁴ The Evolution of Literature. By A. S. Mackenzie. Crowell. 440 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ The Small House at Allington. Barchester Towers Novels. By A. Trollope. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 717 pp. \$1.25 per vol.

⁶ College Readings in English Prose. Selected and edited by Franklin William Scott and Jacob Zeitlin. Macmillan. 653 pp. \$1.25.

HOUSE BUILDING, DECORATION AND FURNISHING

IN "The Small House for a Moderate Income"¹

Mr. Ekin Wallick offers various suggestions towards the building of suburban and country cottages of types in keeping with the present-day mode of living in America. Naturally, the styles of architecture that he recommends are as far as possible removed from the influences of the Victorian Era so-called. The titles of some of his chapters will serve to suggest the nature of the subject matter: "The Colonial Clapboard House," "An American Home in the English Style," "A Dutch Colonial House," "An English Plaster House," "The Half Timbered House," "The Cozy House," "A Country House of Brick and Plaster." The author's discussions of the "Four Thousand Dollar House," "The Homelike House," "The Inexpensive House," "The Comfortable House," "The Economical House," and "Technical Points in House Building" are specially practical and helpful to the intending builder. The illustrations of the book, half in color and half in black and white, are distinct aids to the text.

"The Decoration and Furnishing of Apartments,"² by B. Russell Herts, is a new departure in books on house decoration, and one for which all dwellers in apartments will be fervently grateful. It suggests means and ways of beautifying apartments from the humble two-room suite

up to the elaborate duplex and triplex, and contains forty color prints and photographs of the author's work. Mr. Herts endeavors to furnish the details of artistic decoration in combination with a grounding in the knowledge of the principles of decoration, which once gained, all the rest will follow as a matter of evolution of artistic theory. He shows us that in decoration we must worship neither the old nor the new, but only that which is truly beautiful. The student of decorative art as well as the clumsiest amateur will not fail to note the rhythm of Mr. Herts' suggestions and examples,—a rhythm that subtly relates itself to space and light and shade, to angles and proportion, as definitely as the modulations of music relate to the theme.

For the persons who desire artistic furnishings, but are unable to expend a large sum of money, Ekin Wallick has written a practical handbook about house furnishings and decorations,—*"Inexpensive Furnishings in Good Taste."*³ The book is profusely illustrated with views of rooms completely furnished and many cuts of artistic pieces of furniture that can be purchased at moderate prices. "Attractive Wall Treatments," "Lamps and Lampshades," "Willow Furniture," and "The Odd Things Which Make the Living Room Comfortable" are some of the chapter headings.

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Books Relating to the War

Collected Diplomatic Documents Relating to the Outbreak of the European War. Doran. 561 pp. \$1.

All the official correspondence made public by different European governments relating to the outbreak of the present war. This material was first published in the United States by the *New York Times* and is now collected for the first time in a single volume carefully indexed. It is explained in the preface that this volume has been compiled not in order to excite new attention, but rather for the benefit of students of history and politics. Only those documents which the various governments have laid before the world as authentic records of events are included in this publication. Commentaries, even when coming from the governments themselves, have been disregarded.

The Campaign of 1914 in France and Belgium. By G. H. Perris. Holt. 395 pp. \$1.50.

The story of the war on the western front from

¹ *The Small House for a Moderate Income.* By Ekin Wallick. New York: Hearst's International Library Company. 96 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² *The Decoration and Furnishing of Apartments.* By B. Russell Herts. Putnam's. 190 pp., ill. \$3.50.

³ *Inexpensive Furnishings in Good Taste.* By Ekin Wallick. Hearst's International Library Co. 128 pp. \$1.25.

the siege of Liège to the close of the first fighting in Flanders. The author, who was special correspondent in France of the London *Daily Chronicle*, adds fresh information regarding the plans of campaign and the more important engagements, and describes the destroyed towns.

The Soul of Germany. By Thomas F. A. Smith. Doran. 354 pp. \$1.25.

A study of the German people made by an Englishman, who, during the years 1902-1914, was English lecturer in a German university (Erlangen), and, by reason of his position, had unusual opportunities to know the life and sentiments of the people among whom he lived.

Punch Cartoons of the Great War. Doran. 216 pp. \$1.50.

"Punch Cartoons of the Great War" contains about a hundred full-page cartoons reprinted from the famous London weekly, the work of Samboorne, Raven-Hill, Bernard Partridge, Townsend, and others, together with some smaller comic pictures on various phases of the war as they appear to Englishmen. The cartoons are grouped under nine headings, the first chapter dealing with the period before the war and going back to Tenniel's famous "Dropping the Pilot" cartoon, and others depicting Kaiser Wilhelm.

Sociology, Economics, Politics

Outlines of Sociology. By Frank W. Blackmar and John Lewis Gillin. Macmillan. 586 pp. \$2.

This volume in the series of "Social Science Text-Books," edited by Professor R. T. Ely, is intended primarily for the use of teachers of sociology in the colleges and universities, while, at the same time, it gives a good survey of the field for the benefit of the general reader. The authors are experienced teachers of the subject and they have brought their book well up to date in every respect.

The Japanese Problem in the United States. By H. A. Millis. Macmillan. 334 pp. \$1.50.

Professor Millis, who holds the chair of economics in the University of Kansas, made a personal investigation of the conditions in California, Oregon, and Washington, as well as in Utah and Colorado. The results were embodied in a report made to the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. The book does not pretend to offer a final solution of the problem, but it presents very clearly the essential facts of the situation and considers intelligently and dispassionately some of the suggestions that have been offered with a view to remedying various forms of discontent. Its authoritative character may be inferred from the fact that Professor Millis served five years ago as agent in charge of the investigation made by the Immigration Commission in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast States.

The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861. By Carter Godwin Woodson. Putnam. 454 pp. \$2.

Very little has heretofore been written on this particular phase of negro history. Most people are inclined to assume that virtually all the education the colored people of this country have received dates from the Civil War. Dr. Woodson, on the other hand, found that some of the most interesting episodes in the history of the race preceded that war, and the efforts of American negroes for enlightenment under the most adverse conditions are as interesting as anything in the history of the race.

The Negro Races. Vol. II. By Jerome Dowd. Neale. 310 pp. \$2.50.

This is the second volume of Professor Dowd's series of sociological studies from the standpoint of race. For purposes of exposition he has divided Africa into separate economic zones, which, when looked at broadly, reveal distinct characteristics and exercises a determining influence upon the social and psychological life of the people.

Income. By Scott Nearing. Macmillan. 238 pp. \$1.25.

Professor Nearing gives in this volume a succinct presentation of economic facts as contrasted with theory. He is interested in ascertaining what division of any given product of labor is made among the members of the community, that is to say, how is the created value apportioned among the laborers, the managers, and the capitalists?

The Wealth and Income of the People of the United States. By Wilford Isbell King. Macmillan. 278 pp. \$1.50.

The same question is raised in Dr. King's book, which emphasizes the changes that have taken place in the social wealth of the American people,—land, forests, mineral resources,—and discusses the distribution of wealth and income among families.

Sanitation in Panama. By William Crawford Gorgas. Appletons. 298 pp., ill. \$2.

In this volume General Gorgas tells in non-technical language the story of how yellow fever was eliminated at Panama, and other tropical diseases that have long reigned there brought under control, until to-day the isthmus, once known as one of the most unhealthy localities in the world, is frequently alluded to as a health resort.

The New American Government and Its Work. By James T. Young. Macmillan. 663 pp. \$2.25.

There are plenty of books to tell us what our government is,—on paper,—but those that tell us what it is actually doing are less numerous. Professor Young, of the Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, accomplishes both tasks in a single volume. He gives fully as much space to the work of the government as to its form or structure, and this, of course, requires him to give special attention to government regulation of business, to social legislation, to judicial decisions interpreting essential public powers, and to the recent rapid development of executive leadership. Perhaps the crowning feature of the book is Professor Young's presentation of the government as a means of service.

American State Constitutions. By James Quayle Dealey. Ginn. 308 pp. \$1.40.

Oddly enough, it is said that this is the first published book devoted entirely to the significance of State constitutions in our policy. It should be in the hands of every member of the convention at Albany.

Report of the Efficiency and Economy Committee, State of Illinois. 1051 pp.

This volume contains valuable reports by professors in the University of Illinois and others on the various activities of the Illinois State government. It throws important side lights on State administration in general.

The Cry for Justice. Edited by Upton Sinclair. John C. Winston Co., Phila. 891 pp., ill. \$2.

"The Cry for Justice, an Anthology of the Literature of Social Protest," edited by Upton Sinclair, with an introduction by Jack London, offers classified quotations selected from twenty-five languages, of the writings of philosophers, poets, social reformers, novelists and others who have raised their voices against social injustice. Mr. London writes in the preface that this is the "first gathering together of the body of the literature and art of the humanist thinkers of the world." This remarkable book is divided into seventeen sections with the following titles:

Toil; The Chasm; The Outcast; Out of the Depths; Revolt; Martyrdom; Jesus; The Church; The Voice of the Ages; Mammon; Humor; The Poet; Socialism; War; Country; Children; The New Day. Short biographical notes give desirable information desired about the various authors represented. The reader will find gathered together in this anthology much of the nobleness that has surged through the minds of men who were aware of the misery and unfairness and suffering that existed in the world. It is a new world's history, and a vision of hope for the world's future. It is the sustained voice of Democracy crying in the wilderness of human woe: "Prepare ye the way of the Lord." Mr. Sinclair writes: "If the material in this volume means to you, the reader, what it has meant to me, you will live with it, love it, sometimes weep with it, many times pray with it, yearn and hunger with it and above all resolve with it."

Labor in Irish History. By James Connolly. Maunsell & Co., Dublin. 216 pp. 25 cents.

"Labor in Irish History," a book written by James Connolly and published last year in Dublin, gives a retrospective view of the people of Ireland who make up what the author calls "the unconquered working class." Two propositions are placed before the reader: First, that in any country the progress of the "fight for national liberty of any subject must perforce keep pace with the progress of the struggle for liberty of the most subject class in that nation." Secondly that the Irish middle-class, with its trade affiliations with English capital, has become so corrupted that it cannot be trusted to advance the cause of Irish patriotism, therefore "The Irish working class remain as the incorruptible inheritors of the fight for freedom in Ireland." One may not agree with Mr. Connolly, but his book is tersely written and presents a readable history of the Irish working class, and suggestions for the transformation of Ireland into a social democracy.

Chants Communal. Horace Traubel. H. & C. Boni, New York. 194 pp. \$1.

A second edition of Horace Traubel's "Chants Communal" brings to our attention a splendid book of rhythmic prose that interprets Democracy, and carries a message to every man and woman who lives in the hope that we may sometime realize the ideal of,—liberty, fraternity, and equality.

The Drama

Shakespeare Study Programs. By Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clark. Richard Badger. 150 pp. \$1.

Excellent arrangements for the study of the nine Tragedies. The Comedies are issued in uniform style.

Shakespeare's Principal Plays, edited by J. W. Cunliffe, Tucker Brooke and H. N. MacCracken. Century. 957 pp. \$2.

An admirable example of modern bookmaking. The popular Shakespearean plays,—twenty in

all,—arranged in a single volume with illuminating notes by the editors. The stage history of each play is given and an excellent account of recent performances. The text is based on that of the First Folio, and the original stage directions are retained wherever possible.

How to See a Play. By Richard Burton. Macmillan. 217 pp. \$1.25.

Sensible advice as to the method of obtaining the most entertainment and instruction possible for the price of a theater seat. A guide to correct appreciation of the emotional, artistic and intellectual values of the drama.

Robert Frank. By Sigurd Ibsen. Translated by Marcia Hargis Janson. Scribners. 192 pp. \$1.25.

A strong idealistic drama dealing with Syndicalism in France. A young statesman attempts to end the strife between capital and labor with tragic results.

The Continental Drama of To-Day. By Barrett H. Clark. Holt. 252 pp. \$1.35.

An instructive book that will serve as a guide to the study of the plays of Ibsen, Björnsen, Strindberg, Tolstoy, Gorky, Tchekoff, Andreyeff, Hauptmann, Sudermann, Wedekind, Schnitzler, von Hoffmouthal, Becque, Maeterlinck, Rostand, Brieux, Hervieu, Giacosa, Dormay, Lemaitre, Laedean, D'Annunzio, Echegaray, and Galdos.

British and American Drama of To-Day. By Barrett H. Clark. Holt. 315 pp. \$1.60.

"British and American Drama of To-Day" has been prepared by Mr. Barrett Clark as a companion volume to "The Continental Drama of To-Day." The student who familiarizes himself thoroughly with the essentials of dramatic technique, the analysis of structure, the suggestions, and bibliographies in these volumes will have gained the necessary knowledge to perceive the trend of the modern movement, and place correct valuation upon the contributions of the various dramatists. Professor Clark analyzes and gives study outlines of the works of Pinero, Jones, Wilde, Shaw, Barker, Hankin, Chambers, Davies, Galsworthy, Synge, Lady Gregory, Gillette, Fitch, Mackaye, Thomas, Sheldon, Walter, and others.

The Photodrama. By Henry Albert Phillips. Larchmont, N. Y.: The Stanhope Dodge Company. 221 pp. \$2.

A concise hand-book for those who are anxious to write moving-picture scenarios. It insists upon the necessity of giving dignity and art to our moving-picture plays in order that they may become an agency for good.

Photoplay Making. By Howard T. Dimick. Ridgewood, N. J.: The Editor Company. 103 pp. \$1.

Nineteen chapters of practical advice about the making and the production of photo-plays, in combination with an analysis of the dramatic principles that govern this type of play. This book is especially recommended to those who wish to undertake directing the production of moving-pictures.

Public Speaking

A Complete Guide to Public Speaking. By Grenville Kleiser. Funk & Wagnalls. 655 pp. \$5.

A veritable encyclopedia on the subject is Grenville Kleiser's "Complete Guide to Public Speaking." Numerous are the books available to those who aspire to shine in this field, but here is a rich compendium of full and valuable extracts from a host of ancient and modern authorities, and from the world's masters of the art of oratory, touching on every phase of the subject. The matter is arranged alphabetically, and one may thus read by topic, or with equal profit go regularly through the book from the interesting introductory article on the "Art of Public Speaking," by Mr. Kleiser, to the useful and ample index at the end. The volume is a unique and valuable thesaurus on public speaking in all its branches.

The Art of Public Speaking. By J. Berg Esenwein and Dale Carnegie. The Home Correspondence School, Springfield, Mass.

A course of instruction that builds up, from the fundamental principles of oratory, a practical process for acquiring fluency and power in public speaking. Questions, exercises, and speeches for study and practise are interspersed with the text. The mystery of the technique of the finished orator is analyzed in such a way as to give hope to even the most blundering beginner. Dr. Esenwein was for nine years editor of *Lippincott's Magazine*, and is well known as a teacher and writer. Mr. Carnegie has charge of the instruction in public speaking in the Y. M. C. A. Schools of New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore.

Stories

The Great Tradition. By Katherine F. Gerould. Scribners. 353 pp. \$1.35.

The second volume of Katherine Fullerton Gerould's short stories includes "The Great Tradition," "Leda and the Swan," "The Miracle," "The Dominant Strain," and others of her finest work. These stories are considered to be typical examples of the best short stories written by American authors. Mrs. Gerould's technic has been compared to that of Edith Wharton. There is the same restraint, the identical dry-point-etching method of analysis; and if there is a flaw in the result, it is a kind of bloodlessness, a thinness that imprisons the imagination. In this Mrs. Gerould differs from Conrad. She possesses a somber, brooding imagination that after the fashion of the great Polish novelist veils the merest trifle in mystery; but Conrad liberates the mind of the reader to the spaciousness of the universe.

A Kingdom of Two. By Helen Albee. Macmillan. 322 pp. \$1.50.

One will remember Thoreau when one reads "A Kingdom of Two," a romance of country life. Its author, Helen Albee, has written of a home,—a house and a garden and all that in them is,—a chronicle of happiness, and of the joy the seeker finds who is willing to sit at the feet of Nature and learn her secrets. The book ends with a wedding made possible by love and thoughtfulness, and just before the last pages one comes

upon a picture of "the house," its long, low lines draped with clinging green.

Education

The Practical Conduct of Play. By Henry S. Curtis. Macmillan. 330 pp., ill. \$2.

In 1906 when the Playground Association of America was organized, less than twenty cities were maintaining playgrounds. So rapidly did the play movement develop that in 1913, 642 cities were conducting playgrounds either under paid or volunteer caretakers. New York City alone has spent \$17,000,000 on its play systems during the past fifteen years. In other words, play has attained a recognized place in school curricula and has become a serious business. Mr. Henry S. Curtis, who has had sixteen years experience in the playground movement, during which he was a general director of playgrounds in New York City, supervisor of playgrounds in Washington, D. C., and Secretary of the Playground Association of America, has written a book on "The Practical Conduct of Play." He gives an account of the play movement, treats of playground construction, equipment, games, training of play directors, programs, play festivals, miscellaneous activities and discipline. In short, the volume is a thorough summing up of the subject of public playgrounds by an authority in this field.

Ears, Brain and Fingers. By Howard Wells. Boston: Oliver Ditson Company. 97 pp. \$1.25.

An excellent text-book for piano teachers and their pupils, that endeavors to unite in teaching and in technic three essentials,—a trained mind, cultivated musical hearing and unfettered use of the fingers.

College Life: Its Conditions and Problems. By Maurice Garland Fulton. Macmillan. 524 pp. \$1.25.

A selection of essays by college presidents and teachers, for use in college composition courses.

The College Course and the Preparation for Life. By Albert Parker Fitch. Houghton Mifflin. 227 pp. \$1.25.

Wise and inspiring reflections by the president of Andover Theological Seminary on topics that should interest every college student in the land.

A Guide to Good English. By Robert Palfrey Utter. Harpers. 203 pp. \$1.20.

A peculiarly helpful book for the literary craftsman, based on a number of years' experience in handling manuscript intended for publication and that which is written in college classes.

Little Folks Plays of American Heroes: George Washington. By Mary H. Wade. Richard Badger. 91 pp. 60 cents.

This series has been written with the intention of presenting in simple form the heroes of successive periods of our national life in a way that will enable the child to impersonate the characters and enter into the thoughts of great men. The volumes now ready are: "George Washington," "Abraham Lincoln," "Benjamin Franklin," "Ulysses S. Grant."

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—STREET IMPROVEMENT BONDS

THE lure of high interest rates is one to which the average investor succumbs at some time in his investing experience. Normally a yield of over $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on a bond, or of more than 6 or $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on a stock, means insecurity of principal. Actually, however, it need be no evidence of fault in either stock or bond, but a temporary adjustment of rates to unusual conditions. There are to-day, owing to the war in Europe, dozens of the choicest railroad bonds that return $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 5 per cent. and many in no danger of default that yield from 6 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Also there are stocks of both railroads and industrials on which the return is from 6 to 7 per cent., with no question of the ability to continue regular dividends. Low returns on securities are not an absolute guarantee of safety. Take the decline in British consols of from 20 to 25 points in the decade before the war, as a case in point. This had been one of the lowest yielding issues in the market-place and was held by the most conservative investors, but nowhere has the shrinkage of principal been greater than in this "premier security."

High interest rates are oftentimes sectional. They reflect the demand and supply of capital in a given geographical area. The return on guaranteed real-estate mortgages in New York City is only $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 per cent., whereas in the Northwest property of equal value would produce a return of from 5 to 6 per cent., and in the South, the Southwest, and on the Pacific slope the yield would be from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 per cent. Local conditions, therefore, are a factor of no little importance in determining the price of capital as well as the safety of principal.

This leads up to the central point in this month's discussion of investment securities. So many inquiries have come to this office regarding a relatively new type of investment, viz., street-improvement bonds, that it has been thought well to indicate the main features surrounding such bonds and the means of determining whether individual issues are good or bad. This type of bonds has been floated in the past in different parts of the United States, though the widest distribution of them has occurred west of the

Mississippi River. There have been issues that turned out most unfortunately for the buyers. In Chicago there are now quite a large number in default. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, has experienced considerable trouble, and some of her 6-per-cent. street-improvements have recently been offered in Eastern markets on a 10-per-cent. basis. Bonds of several of the important Puget Sound cities are also offered at a discount, and defaults are recorded on street-improvement issues in quite a number of rapidly growing sections of the West and Southwest.

It is only fair to give both sides of the story in connection with these bonds. If the total street-improvement bonds issued throughout the country were to be placed in a column alongside the bonds actually defaulted on, it would be seen that the percentage of failures to successes is small. The exceptions give opportunity to analyze the weak points of street-improvement bonds and to indicate how to avoid purchase of issues that may be full of trouble, for if proper investigation of individual bonds is made and good business judgment is exercised, the investor ought to be in possession of a sound bond and one returning him between 6 and 7 per cent., the latter rate predominating in California, where this type of issue is just now most in vogue.

Distinguished from Municipals

It should be stated at once that street-improvement bonds are not in any sense municipal bonds. Whenever a representation is made to a bond-buyer contrary to this statement he may have reason to suspect the retailer of the bond. A municipal bond assumes municipal liability. There is none in street-improvement bonds. The bonds are a municipal obligation, however, and principal and interest are paid at the office of the city treasurer, which office collects the taxes applying on the improvements which are the foundation of these bonds. The only lien taking precedence on the property involved over these bonds is a lien for general taxes. The accepted high character of the bonds is indicated from the fact that in California they are legal for savings-bank investment

and everywhere are exempt from Federal, State, county, and city taxes.

More than twenty years ago the California Legislature passed a bond act which is supplementary to the Vrooman Act, under which street-improvement bonds are sanctioned. This act provides for payment of improvement work on the assessment plan. It is only after the work is finished that assessments are levied. The apportionment is on the basis of so much per front foot or according to the benefits as determined by the Superintendent of Streets or by the council on appeal. The contractor collects his pay from the property owner and generally assigns his liens and in case the owner does not pay the assessment he may bring suit in the Superior Court to enforce the lien. Most of the bonds are issued in small denominations, from \$25 up to \$1000, with part of the principal payable each year. Frequently it is possible to obtain issues below par when necessity for ready money is imperative.

Proceedings to Force Payment

In the case of non-payment of the principal or interest of the bonds the property liable may be sold by the city,—upon application of the holder,—in a manner similar to that prescribed in the case of non-payment of taxes. There is no personal liability on the part of the owner; for the bonds are simply as good as the property they cover and no better, as each is a lien on a particular tract. As has been said, interest is paid by the city treasurer, usually semi-annually, January and July. The life of most bonds does not exceed ten years. The only way the owner can induce acceptance before maturity is to make default in payment. If the holder elects to exercise his option and consider the whole amount due and owing and endeavors to force payment by a sale of the property the owner may pay principal and accrued interest and costs and obtain a discharge of the lien. The lien of the bonds is enforced by an application to the city treasurer. The whole proceedings consume from a month to a month and a half. There is a period of redemption of a year during which the interest charges are 12 per cent.

Things to Be Investigated

It is somewhat obvious that street-improvement bonds are issued against newly-developed sections of cities and towns. This implies that they may cover territory that has been over-boomed and may be inflated in price. It also brings into doubt the ques-

tion of early realization of the hopes of the property owners. In addition there is the question of the attitude of public utilities occupying said streets, toward the improvements. These have all caused confusion and vexation in specific instances, and to them are attributed the losses that have been referred to earlier in this article.

The chief fault found in street-improvement bonds is that they are issued at times in excess of the property against which they are a lien. This also happens in real-estate mortgages where second and third mortgages are placed and the total mortgage debt is beyond the proper appraisal of the buildings and lands mortgaged. Where a plot of land has little depth, but a liberal street facing, the risk to the buyer of such bonds is great. Again, if the section of the city where the improvement is laid down is poor and with no future, even 7 per cent. income does not compensate for the risk involved.

Investors who are considering these bonds must have their eyes and ears open. Too much investigation of the particular property bonded cannot be made. One should go about one's purchase with the same caution that one would exhibit in taking a real-estate mortgage. If possible visit the section involved. If that is not feasible, communicate with banks, real-estate agents, or merchants in the vicinity of it. One issue of such bonds now being sold is only 25 per cent. of a conservative appraisal of the property value. Under such conditions, safety of principal and liberality of income produce a combination that fully commends itself to a careful buyer. More than this the character of the banking-house or group of capitalists offering street-improvement bonds is an element to be fully considered. Where offered by irresponsible parties they should be shunned.

In one of the California cities a number of men of local prominence formed a syndicate for the purchasing and marketing of the street-improvement securities of that city. They were eminently successful and the investors who bought the bonds have been fully satisfied. There is a certain amount of trouble attending the frequent maturity and consequent reinvestment which does not exist with long-term bonds and the element of marketability is not very strong. With short life, however, most investors are willing to carry their bonds until paid off.

In conclusion, therefore, it may be said that if the plan outlined, of full investigation of the particular property bonded is made to determine whether or not the bonds

issued for street-improvement work do not exceed the value of the property itself and if the locality is a growing one in a progressive community and the offering house has a

strong local reputation, no objection can be made to purchases of bonds of this class, even though the interest rate, on first thought, is against them.

II.—INVESTMENT QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 661. ABOUT A MISCELLANEOUS LOT OF STOCKS FOR THE MOST PART SPECULATIVE

Kindly inform me regarding the highest and lowest prices at which the following stocks have sold since the first of the year, and tell me whether or not you think they are good investments at present prices: Bethlehem Steel preferred, Crucible Steel common, Erie first preferred, Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh Coal common, Pressed Steel Car common, Republic Iron & Steel preferred, U. S. Steel common, Western Union and Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing common.

Up to the time of writing, these stocks have recorded the following highest and lowest prices since the first of the year:

	Highest.	Lowest.
Bethlehem Steel preferred.....	142	91
Crucible Steel common.....	89	18½
Erie first preferred.....	46¾	32¼
Pennsylvania	111¾	103¾
Pittsburgh Coal common.....	26¾	15¾
Pressed Steel Car common.....	59¾	25
Republic Iron & Steel preferred..	98½	72
U. S. Steel common.....	73¾	38
Western Union.....	71	57
Westinghouse Electric & Mfg. com.	113¾	64

It is possible that by the time this issue of the REVIEW is in the hands of its readers, some new records may have been established, especially in the industrial issues, since it is in their department of the market that the most active trading has lately been going on.

As far as any of these stocks may be said to possess investment characteristics, we think Pennsylvania is undoubtedly the best issue in the list, and the most desirable purchase at present prices for the purposes of the average man. It is, in fact, one of the most thoroughly seasoned dividend payers in the whole category of standard stocks, and as its range of prices shows, its market position is one of rather exceptional stability.

Of the various industrial issues, Westinghouse seems to us to be entitled to probably as much consideration as any of the others in this list. In spite of the fact that the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company holds an important place among the concerns engaged in the manufacture of war munitions, its stock has not been the object of the same kind of ill-considered speculation as most of the other so-called "war order" issues.

Republic Iron & Steel preferred and Bethlehem Steel preferred have some investment characteristics, as industrial stocks go, as has also Western Union, but the other issue in the list we believe to be essentially, and in many respects dangerously, speculative.

No. 662. MORTGAGES, MORTGAGE BONDS AND MUNICIPAL SECURITIES

I have written to you before concerning my investments and I think I have always profited by your suggestions, so I am coming to you again for help. I shall soon have several thousand dollars coming in from stock in a building and loan association now in process of liquidation, and this money I desire to re-invest. My other investments as they now stand consist of mort-

gages and mortgage bonds secured on city property in Illinois, Indiana and Pennsylvania, a first mortgage on a Georgia farm and an Indiana municipal bond. I like first mortgages or first mortgage bonds, but I do not want to have all my money invested in one city or State, or by one investment banker. I want to get 6 per cent., if I can do so safely. What would you advise in these circumstances?

We have no doubt that, if you were to look into the offerings of some of the reputable and experienced banking houses specializing in investments based upon real estate, either farm land or improved city property, other than those with whom you have already established connections, you would be able to find something entirely safe to yield quite as much as 6 per cent. But we would also suggest that there is really no need for you to change your bankers merely in order to accomplish your purpose in respect to wider geographical diversification,—a purpose, by the way, which we consider a highly commendable one. It is very often desirable to have more than one dependable banking counselor, but too many are apt to work somewhat at cross purposes to the confusion of the investor.

It might be further suggested that another municipal security would fit in well with your present holdings. In this category of investment, it is not always easy to find suitable bonds yielding as much as 6 per cent., but they are by no means uncommon, and when they are found bearing the sponsorship of trustworthy specialists they make excellent income investments.

No. 663. AGAIN THE QUESTION OF RIGHTS OF BONDHOLDERS IN REORGANIZATION

I thank you for the information you have given me from time to time regarding the Western Pacific situation. I am now enclosing copy of a letter I have received from the first mortgage bondholders' protective committee and would like to ask you whether it is really true that, as the committee says in the letter, "the benefits of any plan of reorganization that may be adopted, and of any purchase of the mortgaged property that may be made pursuant thereto, will accrue only to depositors." Does this mean that those who do not deposit their bonds with the committee can be prevented from realizing anything on them?

Yes, it is quite true that, when it comes to a final readjustment of this company's capital, those security holders who do not assent to the plan that is subscribed to by the majority may be shut out entirely from participating in any future benefits that may accrue from the readjustment. This is a principle of corporate reorganization that has been upheld in the courts time and again.

So that upon notice that the committee has obtained the assent of the majority of security holders to its plan of reorganization, and that it, therefore, intends to adopt the plan and under its provisions to sell the property under foreclosure, there is no alternative for you but to give your assent by depositing your holdings with the committee, unless you elect to have recourse to the open market and sell your bonds at the sacrifice prices currently quoted.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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TERMS:—Issued monthly, 25 cents a number, \$3.00 a year in advance in the United States, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Cuba, Canada, Mexico, and the Philippines. Elsewhere, \$4.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second class matter under Act of Congress, March 3, 1879. Entered as Second Class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English Review of Reviews, which is edited and published in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 30 Irving Place, New York

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY, THE "HOOSIER" POET

Mr. Riley's sixty-sixth birthday will be observed on October 7, in the State of his birth, Indiana, as "Riley Day." Governor Ralston urges "that all the people of the State arrange in their respective communities, in their own way, appropriate public exercises in their schools and at other public meeting places, and that they display the American flag in honor of James W. Riley, Indiana's most beloved citizen." The photograph shows the poet with two of his young friends. The boy's birthday also falls on October 7.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LII

NEW YORK, OCTOBER, 1915

No. 4

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Bulgaria's
Strategic
Importance*

The most spectacular situation of last month was that presented by the amazing Russian retreat and the advance of the Germans towards Petrograd. But by far the most critical situation was that which existed in the Balkan states,—with Bulgaria tenfold more important than ever before in the forty years of her national career. The Allies have had only to win Bulgaria's coöperation in order to have the scales completely turned. Bulgaria's decision to join England, France, and Russia would inevitably compel Rumania and Greece to take the same course. Such action by Bulgaria would render the Turkish position hopeless; and if any sort of terms were extended to them the Turks would make peace at once, the alternative being their total submergence as a separate country. With Turkey disposed of, the entire strength of Greece, Bulgaria, and Rumania would be free to support Serbia and Montenegro in the war against Austria.

*First Turkey,
then
Austria*

With the Balkan states pressing at one angle, and Italy at another, Austria would be on the defensive again, with the certainty of Russia's return to Galicia in the early future. With these new odds against her, Austria in short order might be compelled to make a separate peace. Thus, for the Allies, the only clear path to early victory and a satisfactory peace has been by way of Balkan coöperation. It looked many months ago as if they might almost certainly secure this priceless boon. But there was no decision, late in September, when these lines were written. Russia's evacuation of Galicia and Poland had not strengthened the Allied cause in the Balkans. Neither had the early disasters of the ill-conceived Dardanelles campaign inspired confidence. As these lines were sent to press, the Allies were urging Bulgaria to make her definite choice, while the agents of Berlin and Vienna were prom-



GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND ITALY CHASING
THE BUTTERFLY—BULGARIA

It is fine in summer weather to chase the butterfly—
but it is mostly a vain chase!

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

ising great rewards and announcing an irresistible advance from Budapest across Serbia.

*Rivals for
the Spoils
of Victory*

The entrance of Italy into the war was not nearly so much to be desired by the Allies as the aid of the Balkan states; and inasmuch as Italy expects and demands territorial acquisitions that would otherwise have fallen to Serbia and Greece, the diplomatic complications have not grown less easy to untangle. For a long time Serbia passionately refused to make concessions to Bulgaria, as advised by England and France. Then Greece even more indignantly declined to make her expected grant of Kavala. Rumania was determined to keep the wedge of territory fronting on the Black Sea that she had an-



A MISSING TUNE

KING FERDINAND: "There is but one tune they do not know; but I'll soon teach them it!"

From *Borsszem Jankó* (Budapest)

nexed in the moment of Bulgaria's extremity. It was the supreme diplomatic task of the Allies to arrange and adjust these difficulties, provide immediate and future compensations for everybody concerned, and thus shorten the great war. There was a time, several months ago, when perhaps this might have been accomplished if the diplomacy of the Allies had been more vigorous and daring. Rumania, indeed, was much influenced by Italy's action, and she stopped the shipment of munitions of war across her territory from Germany to Turkey.

Bulgaria
and
Turkey

While there has been undoubtedly a difference of opinion in Bulgaria as to the relative advantages, there is agreement upon the point that she must not act in either direction until she has obtained rewards in hand, and guaranteed benefits to come. Germany and Austria have considered that Bulgaria's hesitation was wholly to their advantage. It is to be noted that the relations between Bulgaria and Turkey have been much improved by an adjustment of boundaries in Bulgaria's favor that was to be put into effect late in September. Bulgaria, in the recent wars, had acquired a limited frontage to the southward on the Egean Sea. But the Turks had held both banks of the Maritza River, including the seaport of Dedeagatch and the stretch of railway following the Maritza valley and leading to the Egean coast. Bul-

garia has now acquired this important railway line, and the river becomes the boundary between Turkey-in-Europe and Bulgaria. This cession also brings Bulgaria back to the outskirts of Adrianople, including the railway station, which lies on the west bank of the river, while Adrianople proper is on the east bank. It is asserted that the terms upon which this grant to Bulgaria has been made involve no political agreements or considerations of any kind. Nevertheless, it would seem hard to accept the view that Turkey could now have made such concessions without German encouragement, and without some reason to expect that Bulgaria would not at once join the Allies in the movement to take Constantinople and crush the Turkish power.

Constantinople
as a Prize

As for the progress of the campaign of the Allies in the Dardanelles, Mr. Simonds writes, on another page, from the latest data available up to the 20th of September. Although such things are said in confidence and behind the scenes, there are hints that England and the other Allies, in case of the early fall of Constantinople, have hopes of a better adjustment of the problem of that



GRIEF IN SERBIA AND THE BALKANS (A GERMAN VIEW)

ITALY (as bride): "Just what does that woman there want?"

NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA: "Oh, that is Serbia, the simple creature; she thinks that she had an earlier engagement with me."

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

A VIEW OF CONSTANTINOPLE

(Two of the famous mosques can be seen in the background, while in the foreground is the Galata Bridge, connecting the main portion of the city with its principal suburb. It was reported last month that a British submarine had worked its way through the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Golden Horn, and had destroyed a portion of this bridge)

city's future control than would have been possible if there had been no Russian reverses. For, undoubtedly, Russia's allies a few months ago were afraid that Russia might regard herself as entitled to make the Black Sea a Russian lake and to control absolutely the passages to the Mediterranean, and the historic metropolis on the Bosphorus. The fall of Constantinople at this time,—with Bulgaria and the other Balkan

states helping England, France, and Italy,—would probably result in the neutralizing of Constantinople and the Dardanelles. Such a solution would be more agreeable to the smaller Balkan states, and more likely to result in permanent peace, than any proposed alternative. Thus England and France, at this time, could afford to bid an enormous price for Bulgaria's coöperation. And the critical situation is in the Balkans.



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

SERBIA, ACCORDING TO REPORT, IS AGAIN TO BE THE SCENE OF WAR ON A LARGE SCALE

(Effect of Austrian artillery in Belgrade. Note the great hole which a single shell made in the street)



(Serbians entrenched behind a railroad track. The wrecked bridge formerly connected Serbia with Austria)



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

KING CONSTANTINE OF GREECE AND HIS SON,
PRINCE GEORGE

(The King naturally prefers that his country should keep out of the great war, the Kaiser being his brother-in-law. He seems to have recovered completely from his recent illness. Prince George has identified himself with the "war party"; and it was freely asserted, during his father's illness, that should the Prince become King Greece would immediately enter the war upon the side of the Allies)

*Will the
Germans Force
the Balkans?*

Meanwhile there were indications that Germany and Austria were intending to strike, while the Allies were waiting and trying to bring about a series of compromise agreements among the rival claimants for spoils not yet obtained. Austria, in her period of humiliating reverses, had retreated from Serbia. After she had recovered her prestige, she was too intent upon driving the Russians back from Galicia and helping in the Polish campaign to give much attention to the little country across the Save and the Danube that had rejected her ultimatum in July, 1914, and thus brought on the war. It was reported, however, late last month, from Vienna and Berlin that the Teutonic armies were planning a terrific drive across eastern Serbia, with a view to opening direct communication with Turkey through Bulgaria. It is evidently believed in the Teutonic capitals that even though Bulgaria should remain neutral she would not interfere with the transportation of war supplies over her railroads. This understanding, perhaps, was involved in the cession of territory by Turkey. Thus it is not unlikely that we may witness in the very near future a bold and overwhelming drive against Serbia. The

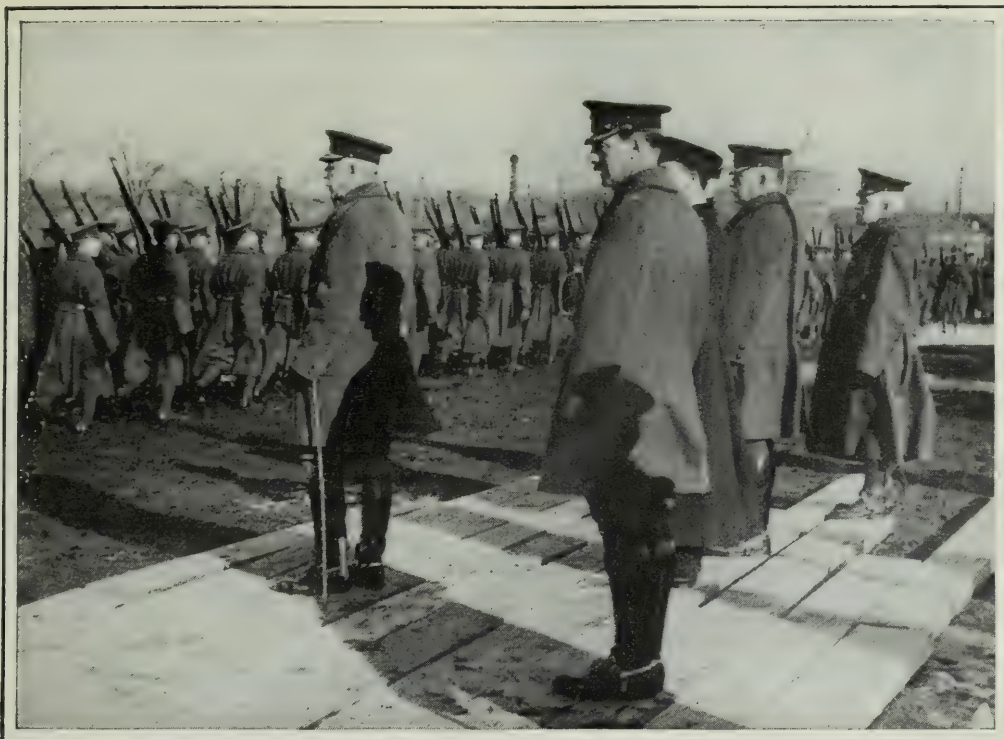
Austrian and German newspapers were wholly confident last month that Bulgaria could not be induced to join the Allies, and they were even hopeful regarding the position of Rumania, although there were rumors current in Germany, after the middle of the month, that Rumania was on the point of taking up the cause of the Allies.

*Greek
Hesitation*

As for the Greeks, they seem to have been paralyzed by the fear of alternatives. The inducements that England and France held out in an encouraging way to Venizelos, more than half a year ago, have become far less glittering since Italy has joined in the war and put in claims for islands and coasts that are regarded at Athens as belonging to the "greater Greece" of the future. Furthermore, Greece is afraid of the Bulgarian position, and while unwilling to yield the little corner that has been proposed, dreads losing both that and more, in case Bulgaria should join the Teutons and Turks while Greece herself is involved on the other side. It turns out that Venizelos, once again in power as Premier, is not, after all, at such odds with King Constantine and with the retiring Premier Gounaris. Seven months ago Venizelos, the idolized statesman, and Constantine, the popular and beloved King, differed as to the immediate course to be taken. But the circumstances have changed so much that all the leaders seem to favor neutrality, until such time as the advantages in favor of going to war are too clear to be doubted. Thus a study of the Greek situation merely strengthens the view that Bulgaria holds the key that controls Balkan action in general. The Greeks are much swayed by pride and sentiment; and they seem to be unanimous in refusing to yield Kavala to Bulgaria, as proposed by the Allies, even though the compensations promised them are far more extensive and valuable, and they would stand to win from a successful conclusion of the war a much larger aggregate of desired benefits than could possibly accrue to Bulgaria. In short, the Bulgarians have a sounder and more reasonable position than have their neighbors who oppose the solutions urged by London and Paris.

*Britain Finding
a War
Basis*

The British Parliament was convened in the middle of September, and the opening days were occupied with frank statements from members of the cabinet, and with questions of fundamental importance. The Prime



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT, GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF CANADA, INSPECTING MONTREAL VOLUNTEERS.

Minister, Mr. Asquith, asked for another vote of credit of a quarter of a billion pounds, which was promptly passed. This is the seventh grant of war funds, bringing the total well beyond six thousand million dollars. About one-fifth of this sum has been advanced to Britain's allies and her colonial governments. Nearly three million men, Mr. Asquith declared, had enlisted in the army and navy since the war began (this number probably including all the enlistments in the colonies). Emphasis was placed upon the fact that the immediate need is a supply of munitions. Mr. Lloyd George, as Minister of Munitions, it was said, had established twenty shell factories and eighteen more were being built. Under the plan of bringing various factories for supplying munitions under direct government control, 715 establishments, employing 800,000 people, were being managed by the Munitions Department. However, Mr. Lloyd George admitted last month that in only a very small percentage of these institutions had it been possible to persuade men to work in double shifts, even though in his opinion the salvation of the country depended upon the production of such supplies.

*England
Growing
Serious*

This seems curious to us in America, where at the very time Mr. Lloyd George was speaking there were almost countless factories running by night as well as by day, and employing men in double or triple shifts, producing munitions for England and her allies. The French and German nations, from the beginning of the war, have been intensely serious and devoted in their efforts. In England, on the other hand, a bad form of trade-unionism, an undue devotion to so-called "sport," and the soddenness resulting from the drink habit, have presented a very unfortunate contrast, and have brought to light some of the country's worst dangers. As against these evils, however, there are millions of Englishmen of high character and patriotic spirit doing everything in their power to meet the emergency. The heads of the British Government have been seriously considering the need of universal compulsory military service. But when the question was prematurely broached in Parliament, one of the Labor members, himself representing the railroad workers, declared that any form of conscription would be met by a general strike and a



THE SPIRIT OF THE ALLIES AFTER ONE YEAR
From *Punch* (London)

roster of every man liable to service. Rifle practise is universal, and a certain amount of drill and instruction is compulsory. There are points in this South African system that might well be considered by the United States as even more applicable to our conditions than to those of Great Britain.

*Allied
Resources
Dominant*

As to the participation of England in the war, there is no disposition to minimize or to shirk, in so far as the government is concerned. The middle of the second year of the war will see England on something like a war footing. The supply both of men and of munitions will now begin to count very positively. Since in any case the material must be paid for with British money, it is of only incidental consequence in the carrying-on of the war whether the supplies are made in British or in American factories. The truth is that the larger the quantity of supplies derived from the United States, the more men England will have at liberty to bear arms and fight. The temporary collapse of Russia, due almost entirely to lack of supplies, will for some months to come increase British burdens in every way. But the war is one of resources and of mechanism, above all else. The British Empire, with its allies, controls all the seas and has unlimited reserves of men, of money, and of power to secure food, cotton and clothing, ammunition, artillery, vehicles, and supplies of all sorts.

*Universal
Service
Justified*

Quite apart from the English situation, let us remark in digression that universal service, if put upon the proper basis, might help to do away with militarism. Certainly existing conditions in England show that the French or German system might be desirable in training and disciplining young men away from drinking and gambling, and in giving them a sense of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. They are now studying in England not only the Australian system and the Swiss system, but also General Botha's so-called "quota" system in South Africa. In the South African Union,—made up of Cape Colony, Natal, the Orange River Colony, the Transvaal, and the Rhodesia country,—every man from 17 to 60 years of age must be enrolled for military service and must take his place in one of three or four classes, the grouping being in accordance with proficiency or age. The country is divided into military districts, and a staff officer in each district keeps the

*German
Confidence*

On the other hand, there has been during the past six months a great growth of assurance and confidence on the part of the Germans and



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

INHABITANTS AT WALLSEND, ENGLAND, LOOKING FOR SOUVENIRS AFTER ZEPPELIN RAID OVER THAT SECTION



THE GERMAN HARVEST, 1915

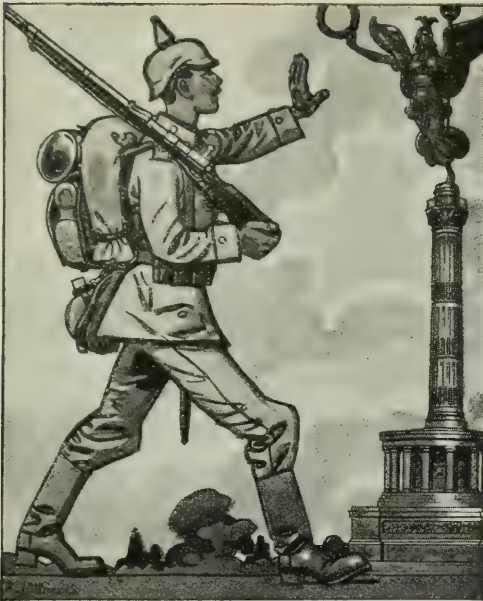
The enemy instead of doing harm, as they intended, are working for Germany's benefit with great results!
From *Lustige Blätter* ©(Berlin)

Austrians. The newspapers of those countries show a significant change of tone. They seem to be so jubilant over recent military success, and so assured of further victories, that the bitterness and wrath of last year are replaced by self-satisfaction and the praise of German prowess. We are publishing again this month a good many cartoons from the most recent issues of Teutonic periodicals. We do this in order that our readers may thus catch the German point of view about various things. What the most discerning leaders really believe is wholly another matter. Our own South was confident at a certain stage in the Civil War; but General Lee probably knew from the beginning that the Confederacy could not win unless Europe took a hand. Certainly the great economists and publicists of Germany must know that back of General Joffre, with his Grant-like doggedness, are not only staying qualities equal to those of Germany, but ultimate resources far superior. Operating on inner lines, with superb leadership and organization, Germany cannot, indeed, be crushed in a long time. But she can, on the other hand, be put in a position where continued war would only make bad matters worse. Germany's only chance, seemingly, for escape from unspeakable and permanent disaster is to make an honorable peace in the near future, on the

strength of a further series of swift and brilliant victories.

Peace is
Germany's
Object

Everyone admits that it will take some months for Russia to be armed, organized, and aggressive once more. Germany's hope is to strike effectively in the Balkans before Russia recovers; but her greatest hope is to find some avenue to peace. Meanwhile Germany's economic triumphs have been as marked as her military superiority. The Germans have been producing munitions with perfect system and tireless energy, where the English have failed. They have found substitutes for the metals and fibers that England has not allowed them to import. They have supplied themselves with food, and have reaped successful harvests, fully bearing out Dr. Dernburg's forecasts of a year ago as to their agricultural capacity. They have interned and conserved their navy, but they have lost their colonial empire. They will probably be better off without it, although that may be hard for German expansionists to believe. Mr. Charles Johnston writes for this number of the REVIEW an interesting résumé of the almost total disappearance of the extensive empire that Bismarck had created in Africa and the islands of the South Seas. Germany's object, evidently, is to press issues to the peace-making stage.



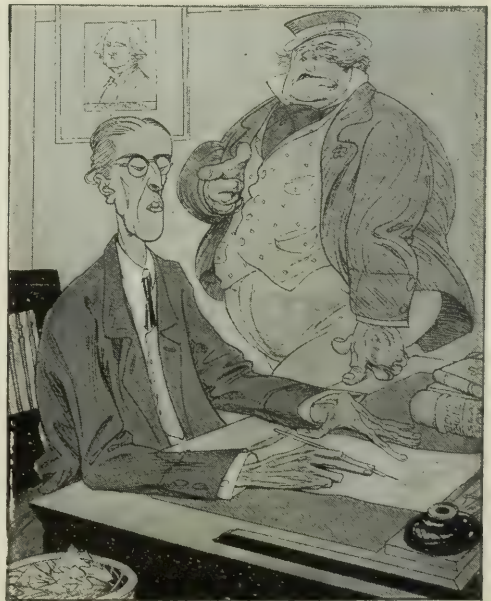
GERMANY AND THE VICTORIOUS YEAR
 "Not yet; I march further still!"
 From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

Improved
 American
 Relations

Sensible and fair-minded Americans have been glad to note the steady growth of an improved understanding between the Berlin government and our own. Ambassador Bernstorff had, on behalf of his government, accepted the general American views regarding the safety of neutrals in submarine warfare; but new disturbances were created by further attacks upon liners. The *Arabic* had left Liverpool for the United States carrying a small number of passengers. Technically, she was a "liner,"—that is to say, an unarmed merchant ship in the passenger trade, and fully entitled to warning and to opportunity for the escape of her passengers and crew before being sunk. Actually, she was a munition-carrier and a tremendous instrumentality of war; and apart from the technicalities of international law she was entitled to scant consideration. It is further true, without mincing matters, that no American who is induced to sail on a ship almost wholly engaged in the munition traffic deserves the kind of solicitude that was due to non-combatants on merchant ships in the old days when the rules regarding warning, visit, and search were developed for the protection of vessels that were legitimately mercantile, and innocent of participation in the war service of one or another belligerent. These matters should be discussed sincerely.

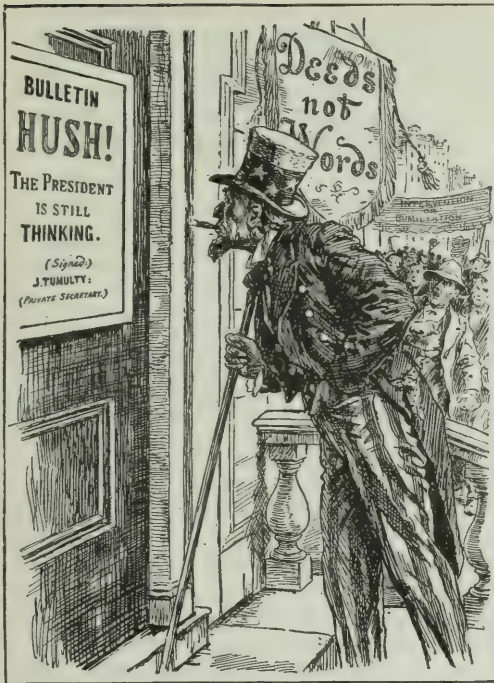
A Word
 for Fair
 Play

Our Government at Washington has taken the case of the *Arabic* very much to heart. This, however, is because it seemed to imply a disregard for assurances which had been given. It is generally believed that Count Bernstorff's statements have been made in good faith, and that Germany is entitled to courteous treatment while the facts are being examined. We are assured that Secretary Lansing and Ambassador Bernstorff have met these issues with mutual respect and confidence, and in a commendable spirit. It is to be regretted that certain newspapers,—whether inspired by political motives or not,—have seemed possessed of a frantic determination to find some detail that would justify prolonging the period of angry railing at Germany. Whatever the German submarine policy may have been in its ruthlessness, it was never directed specifically against the United States. Germany's conduct, on the other hand, in modifying her submarine policy in accordance with the urgent requests of our Government, has shown a deliberate and profound purpose to maintain good relations between the two countries. Those who would try to prevent the maintenance of such relations, through



THE "DICTATOR"

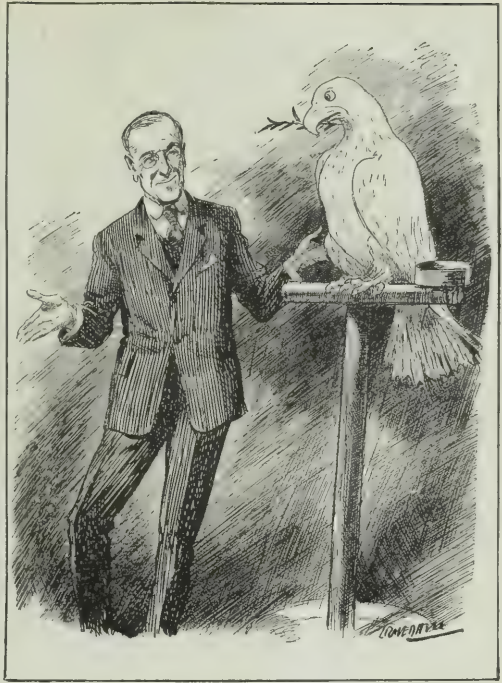
(A German idea of American deference to England.)
 JOHN BULL TO WILSON: "Write—Should the Imperial German Government so strain the friendly relations between America and Germany as to attempt to hinder the delivery of weapons for the destruction of the Central Powers, then the American Government will be compelled to regard it as a deliberately unfriendly act."
 From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)



LE GRAND PENSEUR

(The English idea is that Mr. Wilson has been sacrificing an opportunity to embroil his country in war)

From Punch (London)



HAIL, COLUMBIA

PRESIDENT WILSON (to American eagle): "Gee! what a dove I've made of you!"

From Punch (London)

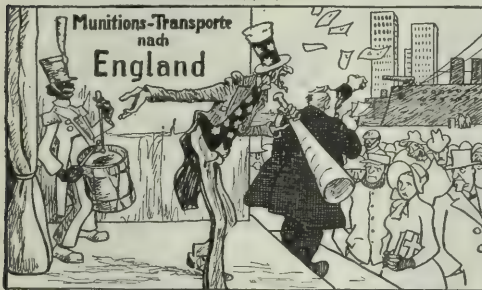
the placing of false emphasis upon minor details, are not only guilty of uncandor, but are not mindful of the interests of this country. Nor are they in any sense showing friendly regard towards England and the Allies. For unwillingness to give Germany fair play could only have the effect of diverting sympathy. Furthermore, the incessant newspaper nagging of Germany could only seem like "straining at a gnat and swallowing a camel," in view of the Washington position

that alleges an entire disregard of maritime international law by the Allies, and challenges the arbitrary control assumed by England over our commerce with neutral countries.

England
and Neutral
Trade

It was stated again last month that our Government was on the point of sending a "note" of a very drastic character upon this subject. It has been many months since our Government

Amerikanische Politik.



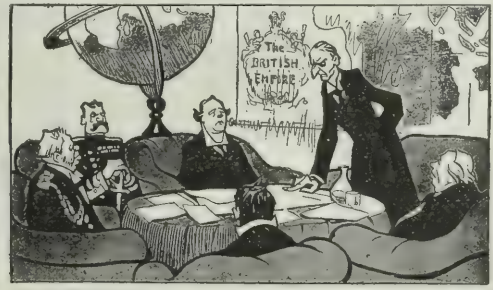
«Hier werden Amerikaner als Schutzengel für den Munitionstransport nach England gegen gute Bezahlung gelodet!»

AMERICAN POLITICS

"Americans are sought here as guardian angels for the transport of ammunition to England; good pay is promised." [This embodies the German idea that America is controlled by the motive of profits in the ammunition business]

From Der Wahre Jacob (Stuttgart)

Englische Politik.



«Grey: Dem Antrag Amerikas, daß die Freiheit der Meere eine Friedensbedingung sein möchte, können wir zustimmen unter der Bedingung: England muß die Kontrolle darüber behalten!»

ENGLISH POLITICS

GREY: "America's proposition that the freedom of the seas must be one of the conditions of peace we can assent to under one condition—that England shall retain control over them."

From Der Wahre Jacob (Stuttgart)

took the ground that England's course toward our trade was highly illegal and very injurious. It would not seem as if there had ever been any need for argument. If we believed ourselves to be in the right, we should have said so very simply and sincerely many months ago, and we should also have decided whether we intended to stand by our alleged rights or to waive and abandon them. If we had intended to support them, there were ample means at hand by which to do so without delay, and also without friction or controversy. There was no need of writing notes, because a friendly statement to the British Ambassador of our views and our intentions would have sufficed. Furthermore, if we had stood firmly by what we alleged to be our rights of trade, Germany would not have had occasion to adopt her submarine policy of reprisals against England. Our continued acquiescence, since last February, in the maritime policies adopted by the British Orders in Council would seem in all fairness to have established British right to regulate our trade during the remainder of the present war. The opportunity for effective diplomacy was last winter or spring.

The thing that remains for us now is British prize court decisions, with a possible appeal to the Hague Tribunal. England says we may sell so many bales of cotton to Sweden, but not any more, because Sweden might sell some to Germany. Let no American reader

suppose that this, and various other rulings of the kind, bear any particular resemblance to the established principles of international law. In the so-called Matamoras cases, at the time of our Civil War, our Supreme Court set forth the principle involved in clear terms:

Trade between London and Matamoras, even with the intent to supply, from Matamoras, goods to Texas, violated no blockade and cannot be declared unlawful. Such trade, with unrestricted inland commerce between such a port and the enemy's territory, impairs undoubtedly, and very seriously impairs, the value of a blockade of the enemy's coast. *But in cases such as that now in judgment we administer the public law of nations and are not at liberty to inquire what is for the particular advantage or disadvantage of our own or another country.*

*The Prize
Court
Decision*

It was in a very different spirit from that shown by our Supreme Court that Sir Samuel Evans, presiding over the British prize court, pronounced confiscation upon some millions of dollars' worth of American meat products that were being carried to Scandinavian ports in several neutral ships, and that were seized a good many months ago by Great Britain. This British court took the ground that the American owners of meat, sailing under Swedish and Norwegian flags to consignees in Scandinavian ports, would have to accept the burden of proof that none of the products was destined ultimately to enter into trade between the Scandinavian countries and Germany. This was in the face of the fact that



"WHAT ARE YOU LAUGHING AT, JOHN?"
From the *News* (Detroit)

commerce between Germany and these countries was entirely free and unobstructed. The *New York Tribune*, in commenting upon the prize court's decision, made the following statement which, coming from a newspaper so preëminently pro-British in its tone since the outbreak of the war, is especially significant:

Applying the continuous voyage doctrine at the expense of the United States may be looked upon in Great Britain as a piece of poetic justice. It is so to a certain extent. We cannot run away from the record in the *Springbok* and similar cases, in which our Supreme Court held that British goods shipped to the Bahamas were subject to seizure, even if it was intended to unload them there, if their evident ultimate destination was some blockaded port of the Confederacy. But Thursday's decision in the British prize court goes a great deal further than that. It practically extinguishes the distinction between contraband and non-contraband goods, and removes all the limitations hitherto put upon belligerents in maintaining blockades of enemy coasts and ports.

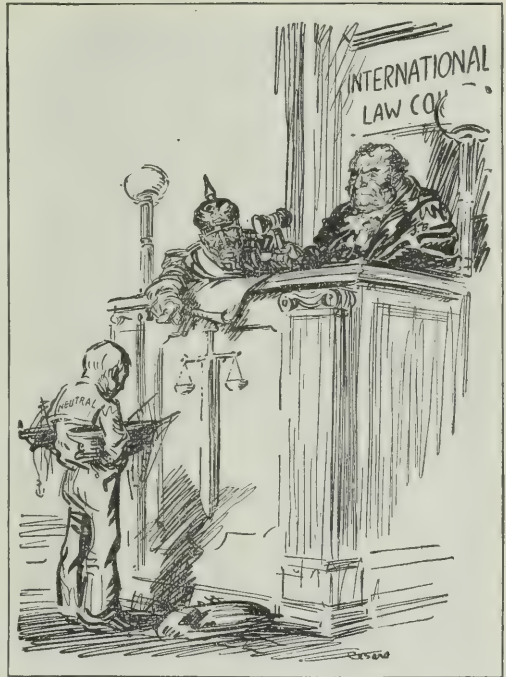
The United States asserted the doctrine of continuous voyage in order to check violations of an actual blockade. Our Supreme Court held that goods intended for the Southern Confederacy could be seized in transit to a notorious base for blockade runners near the Confederate coast line. But it did not maintain that United States war vessels could seize goods not manifestly intended to run an established blockade.

Our blockade stopped at the mouth of the Rio Grande. Consequently, in the *Matamoras* cases it was decided that non-contraband goods could be imported freely into Mexican ports contiguous to the Texas border, the continuous voyage doctrine not applying to such goods because their ultimate destination could not be a portion of enemy territory under *bona fide* blockade.

Danish and Swedish ports are in exactly the same situation in this war as *Matamoras* was in our Civil War. There is no Allied blockade in the Baltic Sea and communication between these two Scandinavian kingdoms and Germany is uninterrupted. Yet Great Britain assumes the right to stop commerce between the United States and Denmark and Sweden because non-contraband goods may reach Germany after being delivered in those countries.

*The Trials of
Teutonic
Ambassadors.*

It is realized by thoughtful and considerate people that the lot of an ambassador or minister representing a belligerent country may at times be very difficult and trying. Mr. Charles Francis Adams found this to be the case when he represented us at London during our Civil War. England was a neutral government, whose citizens were in many ways and in very large measure trying to help the Confederate States win the victory against the North. The German and Austrian ambassadors to the United States were in high personal favor, both officially



THEY AGREE ON ONE THING, "GUILTY!"
From the *Sun* (New York)

at Washington and also throughout the country, when the European war broke out. It was their duty to serve their governments as well as they could, while bearing themselves correctly in their relations to the United States. From the outset, there was a great preponderance of American sympathy for the Allies, largely on account of Belgium. Most of the so-called "German-Americans"—that is to say, Americans of German origin,—agreed with other Americans in feeling that Germany was wrong in not having restrained Austria from attacking Serbia, and in not having accepted the urgent English invitation to a conference. At first, the American position of neutrality seemed to be correctly maintained. But when the overwhelming naval power of the Allies had cleared the seas, the United States seemed to abandon the idea of protecting the rights of those Americans who cared to trade in non-contraband materials with the Teutonic countries. Compensation for the loss of trade with Germany was found in the enormous opportunities for trade of all kinds with England and her allies. The situation thus developed was a very trying one for those in this country who represented the governments of Germany and Austria. They did not deny the technical right of Americans to sell muni-



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MR. AND MRS. DUMBA AT THEIR SUMMER HOME
IN LENOX, MASS.

tions of war. But they felt that the mushroom growth of the munition business was morally a violation of neutrality, and that our Government's justification of the traffic was legal and technical, rather than frank and sincere.

When establishments in which many Austrian and German workmen in America were employed began to take contracts for supplying war material to the Allies, it was declared at Vienna and Berlin that subjects of those governments could not lawfully make war supplies for the benefit of the enemy. In view of the objective facts, no impartial mind could blame Austria and Germany for holding a view that Americans would certainly have held under like circumstances. Many factories in this country are largely manned by Bohemians, Hungarians, Galician Poles, and others from the Austro-Hungarian Empire, who have not taken out naturalization papers. If the Austrian Government desired that these men should give up their means of livelihood, rather than make ammunition with which to kill Austrians and Germans, it would not be strange. Dr. Constantin Dumba, the experienced and much respected diplomat who represented Austria at Washington, was drawn into this

discussion regarding the employment of Austrian subjects for purposes hostile to their country. Dr. Dumba found it almost impossible to communicate freely with Vienna, on account of various censorship. He was unwise enough to send a letter by an American newspaper man named Archibald, who was going to Europe. Archibald in turn was overhauled by the British, who seized the letter and turned it over to our Government. It related to the possibility of embarrassing American munition factories by inducing men to cease work. The fact that this letter went astray and became public was regarded at Washington as putting an end to Dr. Dumba's ability to serve his country advantageously in the United States. At our request, therefore, Dr. Dumba's government has recalled him, and when he goes he will not return as Ambassador.

It is unfortunate that he should have been drawn into a kind of effort that must have been very

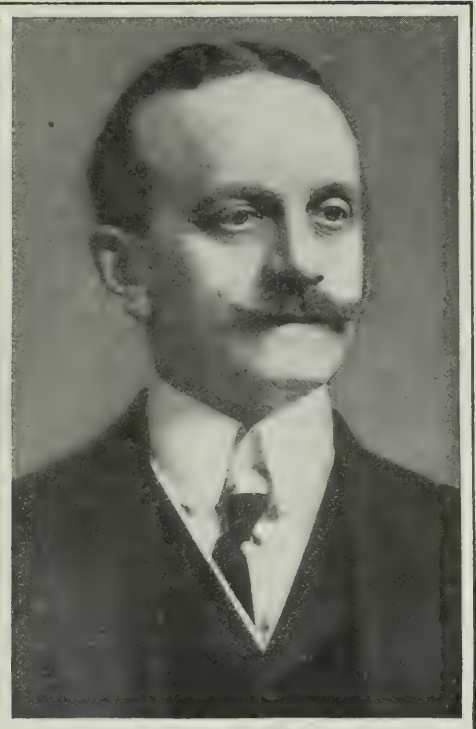
distasteful to him; but doubtless he takes it as a part of the "fortune of war." It happens that the agents and representatives of England and the Allies have everything practically their own way in the United States, and are able to render vast services to their respective countries without arousing criticism or enmity. Such admirable diplomats as Messrs. Jusserand and Spring-Rice have indeed very exceptional work to do, and some anxieties, but they labor in a congenial atmosphere. Dr. Dumba will not return to Europe without receiving many kindly expressions from lovers of manliness and fair play who realize that he has had hard luck. As for the distinguished representative of Germany, Count von Bernstorff, his letters seem not to have been intercepted and he is therefore in good and regular diplomatic standing, while one or another of his assistants or colleagues in the German embassy at Washington has seemed to be involved in matters which, like those revealed in the Archibald letter, do not properly belong to the tasks and functions of correct diplomacy. Successful diplomats like to breathe the air of friendship and peace; and perhaps no member of that guild is more peaceably inclined than Ambassador Bernstorff. He has been intent upon restoring harmony between his country and ours. That he deserves great personal credit for the manner in which he has borne almost intolerable newspaper impudence is the opinion of all wise observers.

An American Loan to the Allies

On September 10 there arrived in New York on the *Lapland* a notable commission of British and French financiers, with the business of raising a great American loan for the Allies. Representing Great Britain were Baron Reading, Lord Chief Justice of England and chairman of this commission; Sir Edward H. Holden, and Sir Henry Babington Smith, noted English bankers; and Basil P. Blackett, a British treasury expert and secretary of the commission. The French commissioners are Octave Homberg and Ernest Mallet. These gentlemen were at once in consultation with J. P. Morgan & Co. and other prominent bankers of the country, including Mr. James J. Hill, who came from the Northwest to spend his seventy-seventh birthday in New York, very much interested in seeing that the Allies shall get in funds to pay his farmers for the 400,000,000 bushels of wheat they expect to have as an exportable surplus.

What this Borrowing Means

Stated bluntly, this effort of Great Britain and France to establish a credit in New York simply means that the countries of the Allied powers have bought from the United States in the last year about \$1,000,000,000 worth of goods in excess of the value of our purchases from them, and this year promising to see an even greater excess of goods sold by America to Europe over purchases, the Allied powers are now aiming to borrow from us money to pay for what we have sold them. They might send us gold even to the amount of half a billion dollars, which would be the routine way of settling their debt. But in a war such as the world has never before seen, they hesitate to strip their treasuries of gold reserves; and, on the other side, we Americans have already an abnormal supply of gold and there would be some embarrassment in receiving so great a quantity in addition. Still another way of meeting the immediate situation would be the selling back to America of our securities held in the Allied countries, estimated at \$2,500,000,000. But it is not considered probable that the Allied governments could persuade holders of these securities immediately to part with more than a fraction of the total, say, 20 per cent., and the whole operation would be so involved and awkward that the device is being saved as a last resort. It is reported that the French Government is successfully persuading holders of some \$100,000,000 of American securities to sell them back to our investors.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

COUNT VON BERNSTORFF

America's Advantage in Lending

It is, of course, highly to the advantage of the United States that their customers for huge exports should have the money to pay for them. Furthermore, the enormous excess of exports from America had, a month ago, brought down sterling exchange to the unprecedented level of 4.50, which means, briefly, that an English pound sterling spent in America for our manufactured goods or foodstuffs bought over 7 per cent. less than it would have bought at the normal rate of exchange. Thus, if an American manufacturer had contracted with the British Government to supply articles to be paid for in pounds sterling, the American would suffer from depreciation of the English currency when he turned his pounds into dollars. But if, on the other hand, the manufacturer had contracted to be paid for his product in American dollars, the British Government would have to pay so much more in pounds sterling that, at any such exchange rate as 4.50, there would have been the most powerful inducement to get along without buying in the United States. In general, it seemed quite certain that while the Allies could scarcely go without purchasing very large quantities of food



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THE FOUR BRITISH MEMBERS OF THE ANGLO-FRENCH FINANCIAL COMMISSION WHICH VISITED NEW YORK LAST MONTH TO ARRANGE FOR A GREAT LOAN

(From left to right, are Sir Henry Babington Smith, Basil P. Blackett, Sir Edward H. Holden, and Baron Reading, Lord Chief Justice of England. The picture is taken on the steps of Mr. J. P. Morgan's famous library, near Madison Avenue)

stuffs and munitions in America, these purchases would necessarily be restricted as much as possible unless the exchange situation were corrected.

Proposed Terms of the Loan

The amount of credit asked for by the British and French commissioners was understood to be one billion dollars. Many American bankers were fearful that a loan of more than half that sum might produce some derangement in our own financial affairs. Practically all American bankers, save those whose views on this loan were influenced by strong partisan considerations, agreed that it was right and proper that a loan should be raised, especially as the money would stay in this country, being transferred rapidly to American manufacturers and farmers. Early in the discussion of the loan, the question of collateral security was brought forward. During the past months, when the first intimations of some such international loan were made, it was generally thought in America that Great Britain and France would offer

as security for any borrowings here the bonds and stocks of American corporations now held in those countries. The commissioners let it be understood at once, however, that they considered the credit of Great Britain and France jointly guaranteeing a loan as good enough for anyone. The rate of interest mentioned as probable was 5 per cent. net to the investor, with priority over other loans, the bankers asking for a further commission to cover expenses; and suggestions for the time of the loan varied from five to ten years. An all-important point that was agreed on early in the deliberation was that the interest on the loan paid American holders was to be free from the heavy English income tax. This is the first occasion in the history of Great Britain in which she has been willing to arrange the payment of her borrowings in any currency but pounds sterling. The present loan is to be paid, principal and interest, in American dollars, and probably in instalments to prevent any sudden great financial drain on our banking reserves that would cause unsettlement.

*Increasing Rate
of War
Expenses*

Statisticians computed in the middle of September a daily total cost of the war of \$90,000,000. This is a daily expenditure nearly three times as great as was reported in the first months of the war, and whether it be approximately correct or not, it is certainly true that the wastage of the great conflict is going on at a frightfully accelerated rate. The public debts of the belligerent countries have already increased by the stupendous total of \$18,000,000,000 since August of last year. Not only Great Britain and France, but Russia and Italy as well are preparing to make new loans which will add further to the sum of national indebtedness. It is thought that if the war should continue a year longer, Great Britain and France will need to borrow from America a very much larger sum than the half billion or billion dollars now involved, the most careful students of the situation predicting that at least two billion dollars must be loaned from this country.

*McAdoo Aiding
the Cotton-
Growers*

The Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. McAdoo, has announced that the government would deposit \$30,000,000 in gold in the federal reserve banks of Atlanta, Dallas, and Richmond for the relief of cotton-growers. Under this plan the banks in the South are to get from the reserve institutions as much of this fund as is needed without any payment of interest in order that the planters may borrow money on their cotton warehouse receipts at a low rate of interest and be enabled to carry their product comfortably instead of throwing it on the market at any price they can get. President Wilson has taken a personal interest in the situation confronting the cotton-growers and has written a letter appealing to the banks of the South to make loans to the planters at interest rates not greater than one to two per cent. above the actual cost of money.

*A Small
Cotton
Crop*

There was heavy deterioration in the cotton-fields in August due to excessive rains, and the official estimate of the year's crop is for only 11,800,000 bales as against an actual yield last year of 16,100,000 bales. The South does not seem to be greatly disturbed over Great Britain's placing cotton on the contraband list. Announcement of this action was made on August 21st and France followed it with a similar move, and it is thought that Italy may follow suit at a later date. In

Oct.—2



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE TWO FRENCH MEMBERS OF THE VISITING
FINANCIAL COMMISSION(Octave Homberg stands at the left, and Ernest Mallet
at the right)

making cotton absolute contraband, Great Britain explains that she will still allow the staple to go to neutral countries, but that a limit will be put on such shipments to prevent them from exceeding normal consumption. At the same time the burden of proof of neutral destination was put on the cotton shipper. The net result of these conflicting influences,—the abnormally small crop of the year on the one side and Great Britain's contraband declaration,—was that the price increased in the middle of September. Spot cotton was quoted at nearly $10\frac{1}{2}$ cents, while deliveries for six months later brought $11\frac{3}{4}$ cents. This range of prices compares with a low price of between 6 and 7 cents in the disturbed days of last autumn.

*War's Tonic
to American
Business*

Mr. Charles F. Speare's article in this issue of the **REVIEW OF REVIEWS** gives a bird's-eye view of the sensational developments in American business during the first year of the great



(Mr. McAdoo, in his capacity as milkman, reports to Uncle Sam that the Underwood tariff is not yielding enough to meet the situation)

From the *Star* (Washington, D. C.)

war, developments which contrast curiously with the gloomy predictions made at the outbreak of the conflict. The Department of Commerce at Washington issued on the 14th of September an official statement describing the tonic effect of war exigencies on American manufactures, and forecasting the effect of the conflict on the industrial future of this country. It believes that the lusty stir in our industrial life to supply the immediate needs of the belligerents will be followed by a very material permanent addition to the manufacturing plants of the United States. It places great importance on the impulse given to American manufacturers to deal at home with a variety of articles instead of shipping the crude materials of our farms, forests, and mines three thousand miles across the ocean, before we buy it back in manufactured form. In the matter of dyes, American plants have not only increased their production of artificial colors, but dyers have realized new possibilities for the natural dye stuffs we have been neglecting. As regards the supply of potash for fertilizer, a dozen companies are now utilizing the great beds of kelp floating on the Pacific waters close to our shores to supply the new need caused by the cutting off of the potash supply of Germany. It is hoped that we may be able in a year or two to get all the potash needed for fertilizer from home sources, "while another year or two may see us free from dependence on dyes of foreign make."

Windfalls for Motor Factories

The demand from the belligerent countries for automobiles and motor trucks has been a boon to the American factories, and has aided in the enormous development of production for home consumers described so vividly by Mr. Frederick in this issue of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. As a matter of fact, a number of our motor manufactories were nearly prostrate financially, but they have been set on their feet by the new market in the warring countries. This is not true of the General Motors Company, which, on September 17, declared its first dividend on the common stock of 50 per cent. in cash, the largest initial cash dividend ever paid on a security listed on the New York Stock Exchange. It is true, however, that five or six years ago the General Motors Company was prostrate financially. It was taken in hand by energetic and shrewd banking interests and was already doing handsomely in the way of profits and had completely reestablished its current financial situation when the war broke out. In the year ending July 31, 1914, this company made a profit of less than \$8,000,000; during the next year the net profit amounted to nearly \$15,000,000 or over 80 per cent. of its issue of common stock.

Washington's Political Hesitation

The country is still in the dark as to the recommendations that will be made by the President and his advisers regarding our national de-



UNCLE SAM FINDS A WAY TO BE HELPFUL TO THE COTTON PLANTERS

From the *News* (Newark)

fenses, although it is generally agreed that this must be the principal topic for Congressional discussion in December. Unfortunately, everything at Washington has a political aspect, and we may never know exactly what Secretary Garrison thinks ought to be done, nor even what Secretary Daniels would be willing to do if he could have his own way. Senator Kern of Indiana, Democratic leader of his branch of Congress, is said to be opposed to the views of the men who are carrying on the propaganda of "preparedness." Mr. Kitchin, of North Carolina, who will be Democratic floor leader of the House, is said to hold views not unlike those of Mr. Kern. The Administration might, indeed, carry its program of naval expansion and army enlargement by the help of a practically unanimous vote of the Republican minority in Congress. But Mr. Wilson is a believer in parties, and wishes to win his measures by sheer Democratic superiority. Those who believe that we should keep our navy strong, and at once take steps to make it second only to that of Great Britain, are not one whit more fond of war, or more disposed to become involved in international quarrels, than their colleagues who prefer to be unprepared and unable to cope with the attack even of a second-rate power. Our navy has declined very rapidly in its relative rank and efficiency. Congress should either let it decline still more, and practically abandon it, or else face bravely the very un-

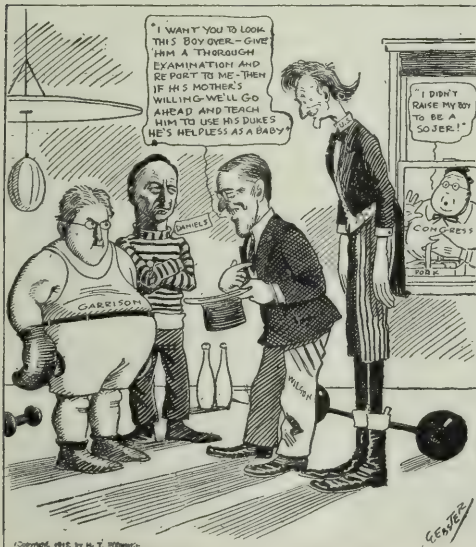


THE AWAKENING OF RIP VAN WINKLE
From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland)

welcome need of spending a huge sum of money to make the navy strong.

*Needs of
Army
and Navy*

Elsewhere in this number, Mr. Walker, well-known as a scientific authority, writes of the weak points in our defensive position and dwells above all else upon the need of building up the navy. We agree with the view that the American navy must be made second only to that of Great Britain, and that there should be no faltering or delay. We have received many commendatory letters regarding the views expressed editorially last month, in favor of the training of all men and boys to fitness for service as citizens, including national defense. As regards the regular army, it would be entirely feasible to provide for a special form of short enlistment, with intensive training, in order to build up rapidly a large body of reserves. We could obtain a reserve army of a million trained men in two and a half years, while paying the cost of an army of only 100,000 men, by the simple device of enlisting young men for a three-months period of very active and beneficial training. Each quota of 100,000 would have honorable discharge at the end of the quarter-year, and thus 400,000 young men would receive ninety days of hard drilling and teaching as members of the regular army under the best instructors our army can furnish,—in the course of a single year. It would, evidently, be necessary to adopt a plan for maintaining some form of continued organization for the reserves. This could be done without interfering with their ordinary callings and pursuits.



IT'S NOW UP TO MOTHER

(This cartoon seems to sum up pretty well the National Defense situation)

From the Globe (New York)

*Governors
on National
Defense*

The conference of State governors, held at Boston during the last week of August, gave expression to the general feeling manifested in various ways throughout the country in favor of a prompt and effective strengthening of the means of national defense. With a single exception the governors present at this conference declared themselves in favor of increasing the present National Guard. Governor Hammond, of Minnesota, spoke in favor of a territorial organization in place of "forty-eight separate armies." But the general sentiment of the conference was that the National Guard, even as at present organized, might be developed into what its name implies,—a means of defense for the whole nation. It was suggested that either the States or the Federal Government should take over the whole cost of equipment and that the troops should be thoroughly democratized. Governor Dunne, of Illinois, thought it possible to increase the number of guardsmen from 120,000 to 1,500,000. This could be done, he thought, if each militiaman were to be paid one dollar for every night spent in military training with a provision that he would receive no compensation unless he attended at least forty nights a year. While at Boston the governors saw fleet evolutions and tactical maneuvers by ten battleships and fourteen torpedo-destroyers. Secretary Daniels made a plea for the assistance of the interior States in obtaining a stronger navy.

*The
National
Guard*

In various States there has been, of late, a notable quickening of interest in the work of the National Guard. A trend towards the practical and useful in military drill has been observable in the encampments and maneuvers held during the past summer. For example, the guardsmen of Indianapolis used real trenches on the outskirts of the city, blew up miniature buildings, and so far as was possible played the war game. The business men's encampment at Plattsburg, described in our September number, was followed by a second and smaller gathering of a similar nature. These encampments gave a needed stimulus to interest in military matters throughout the country. The effect was to put guardsmen on their mettle and to increase their zeal for soldierly tasks, at which the Plattsburg recruits became proficient in so short a time. The seriousness of the job is the lesson which guardsmen everywhere may well take to heart.

*Our Attitude
Towards
Mexico*

The fighting on the Mexican border during the month of September far exceeded in violence any of the outbreaks that had occurred there since the downfall of stable government in Mexico. In desperate battles between United States soldiers, Texas rangers, and Mexican outlaws there were fatalities on both sides before General Funston's troops succeeded in gaining complete control of the situation. Meanwhile, it became known



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE WAR GAME IN INDIANA

(In well-dug trenches the Guardsmen of Indiana played the war game. There was the smell of battle hovering over the field and the men went at the business of make-believe war as if they had a grim duty to perform.)



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MEXICAN BANDITS CAPTURED ON OUR FRONTIER BY UNITED STATES TROOPERS

(Mexican raids along the Texan border were unusually numerous and effective during September. Our troops, under General Funston, together with the Texas Rangers, engaged the Mexicans in several sharp, combats and finally gained the upper hand, but not without considerable loss of life)

early in the month that General Carranza had rejected the proposals made by Secretary Lansing and the representatives of South and Central American powers looking to pacification between the warring Mexican factions. The next step taken by the United States and the A. B. C. conferees was to decide on recognition by each of the countries represented of that faction in Mexico which can most clearly show its capacity to protect the lives and property of the Mexicans and of the foreigners who live in Mexico. It was determined on September 18 that a period of three weeks would be granted to the several factions in which to make this demonstration and at the end of that time recognition of a de facto government will be made by the conference countries separately. At the time when this decision was reached by the conferees it was generally believed that the Carranza faction had proven itself to be the stronger in Mexico, the Villa forces having been worsted near Mexico City; and the opinion was unofficially expressed that all seven of the conferring powers would ultimately recognize his government as supreme. Whether or not this should prove to be the outcome, the policy adopted commends itself as containing certain elements of practical statesmanship in which the past course of our own government may have seemed lacking to most of its critics and to many experts.

Our New
Treaty with
Haiti

The United States naval forces in Haiti have continued to maintain order and give support to the administration of President Dartigue-nave. In the meantime, the new government and representatives of the State Department at Washington have concluded a treaty which, for the next ten years at least, will enable the little republic to exercise self-government with the temptation to wage



A GOOD START ON WORLD FEDERATION
From the News (St. Paul)

civil strife removed. The treaty provides for American supervision not only of Haitian finances but also of a constabulary force which will be established. It is to be hoped that the arrangement will be ratified by the United States Senate. Thus Cuba, Panama, Santo Domingo, and Haiti will have our influence and support in maintaining orderly progress. There is a treaty also pending with Nicaragua which, when ratified by the Senate at Washington, will increase American influence and usefulness there. The position of these small republics in and around the Caribbean is in many ways similar to that of our territories. They exercise full measure of self-government, under the auspices of a powerful and friendly neighbor.

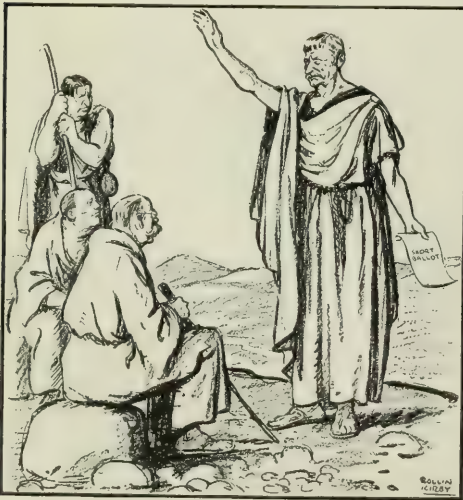
*New
York's
Constitution*

After five months' work the convention at Albany completed the New York constitution on September 4 for submission to the people at the coming November election. The important features of this proposed new constitution have already been outlined in this REVIEW. Taken as a whole, the document is quite as "progressive" as the most progressive leaders in New York politics felt early in the summer that they had reason to expect. It should be judged not so much by the presence or absence of specific reforms as by its general purpose to secure for the people of the State an actual and efficient State government,—a thing which in past years, ac-

cording to Mr. Root, has been as filmy a dream at Albany as in Venezuela. The concluding part of Mr. Root's memorable address to the convention, which appears on page 465 of this REVIEW, embodies the aspirations of those delegates who from first to last stood for one definite thing,—the erection of a government at Albany directly responsible to the people of the whole State. Dr. Cleveland's exposition of the Short Ballot in our August number showed in detail how it was proposed to bring this about. In place of 152 boards and commissions, many of which overlap one another's work and duplicate governmental machinery to the continual wasting of the taxpayer's money, the new constitution provides for seventeen departments or bureaus among which the whole work of the State government is apportioned, the Governor, Comptroller, and Attorney-General being made responsible for the entire organization and its output.

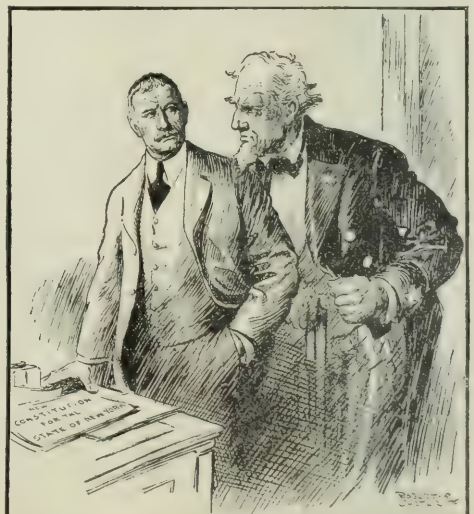
*State
and
City*

The Governor's budget was another step in the same direction and with these two fundamental changes the delegates brought the other features of their work into alignment. The convention recognized the demand of bench and bar for certain changes in the judiciary system and these, it is hoped, will do away with many of the most grievous of the law's delays in the Empire State. The ever-present problem of apportionment of representation between the metropolis and the rest



Furthermore, Elihu answered and said, Hear my words, O ye wise men; and give ear unto me, ye that have knowledge: For the ear trieth words, as the mouth tasteth meat. Let us choose to us judgment: let us know among ourselves what is good.—*Job. xxxiv., 1-4.*

From the *World* (New York)



"SUPPOSE I DRAFT YOU FOR NEXT YEAR'S CAMPAIGN, SENATOR ROOT?"

From the *Sun* (New York)

of the State remains *in statu quo*, but the Hon. Seth Low's efforts as chairman of the cities committee in the convention resulted in the grant to New York City and to all the other cities of the State of a greatly increased measure of local self-government, and virtual denial to the legislature of the privilege of interference in purely local concerns. Thus while equality of representation is still denied to the metropolis, its control over its own affairs is at the same time greatly enlarged.

*The
Philadelphia
Campaign*

The electoral campaigns this year are few.

Only five States out of forty-eight are electing Governors. These are Massachusetts (which continues to elect its Governor each year), Maryland, Kentucky, Mississippi and New Mexico. More exciting and interesting than any of these five campaigns for the headships of States is the pending contest in Philadelphia, for the office of Mayor, where Mr. Blankenburg's four years of reform administration are drawing to a close. The most important official in his cabinet,—Hon. George D. Porter, Director of Public Safety,—is a candidate, with the support of Mayor Blankenburg and the non-partisan citizens' committee which brought about the downfall of the Republican machine and the election of Blankenburg in 1911. Extraordinary efforts are being made by Republican leaders to return to power. To avoid factional strife within the party they practically abolished the primary, persuading Congressman William S. Vare and other candidates to withdraw in favor of Thomas B. Smith, who had recently been appointed by Governor Brumbaugh to the Public Service Commission, and formerly was Postmaster of Philadelphia. The *Public Ledger* called this harmony arrangement "the final chapter in the



HON. ELIHU ROOT, PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION, WHICH COMPLETED ITS WORK LAST MONTH

(Mr. Root's influence was very great in the Convention and his attitude towards bossism, as disclosed by his speeches, caused a Progressive leader like Frederick M. Davenport to characterize him as a Progressive. His address on "the invisible government" is reproduced on page 465 of this REVIEW)

most discreditable deal ever perpetrated by the Gang," while the *North American* declared that "the rival contracting interests agreed upon a nominee who they believe would parcel out the taxpayers' money equitably between the two groups." The triumph of Senator Penrose and the State organization last year has made the Republican leaders in Philadelphia confident and even reckless.

*Party
Strife in
Maryland*

A situation somewhat similar exists in Maryland, where a Governor is to be elected to succeed Hon. Phillips L. Goldsborough. Here also the usually dominant party,—in this instance Democratic,—is out of power. But in Maryland its leaders have not shown the astuteness of their neighbors in Philadelphia. There



THOMAS B. SMITH
(Republican)

GEORGE D. PORTER
(Non-Partisan)

RIVAL CANDIDATES FOR MAYOR IN PHILADELPHIA

has long been bitter strife within the party, but it reached new heights in the recent primary campaign. United States Senator Blair Lee sought the Democratic nomination for Governor, and was defeated by State Comptroller Emerson C. Harrington. Senator Lee was supported by Mayor Preston and the Baltimore machine, but opposed by the State organization and by his colleague, Senator Smith. Aspersions made in the primary may prove difficult to forget before the election. The Republican nominee is Chairman Orvington E. Weller of the State Highway Commission. Governor Goldsborough was not an active candidate. Perhaps he, or the party leaders, had in mind the fact that no man has ever twice been elected Governor by the people of Maryland.

*California
Has One
Great Issue*

Still another instance of the insatiable desire to return to power is witnessed in San Francisco,—where Eugene A. Schmitz is a formidable candidate for Mayor regardless of the fact that his third term in that office was brought to a sudden end by the “graft” exposures of 1907. He freely promises a return to “good old times.” It is expected, however, that Mayor James Rolph, Jr. (Republican), will be reelected. The officials of the powerful Union Labor party have declined to further the ambitions of Mr. Schmitz, their former leader, and have indorsed Mr. Andrew J. Gallagher. The State at large will vote upon Governor Johnson’s plan for abolishing party lines in all but national elections. Fundamentally, this is the most important question that any American State will face this year. Back of all the failure of State

government in New York, as so eloquently confessed by Mr. Root, is partisanship. States, like cities, should be run upon their own issues.

*Massachusetts
and McCall*

The annual campaign in Massachusetts has a tendency to bring before the voters the same candidates, year after year. Thus Governor David I. Walsh (Democrat) is seeking a third term, and his principal opponent is again Congressman Samuel W. McCall (Republican). Ex-Governor Foss, who was three times elected as a Democrat, and who ran two years ago as an independent, endeavored unsuccessfully to obtain the Republican nomination last month on a high-tariff and prohibition platform. The remaining candidates for Governor are new to the voters. The choice of the Progressives is Mr. Nelson B. Clark, of Beverly, while Mr. William Shaw, for many years connected with the National Society of Christian Endeavor, heads the Prohibition ticket. This naturally Republican commonwealth of Massachusetts has had five successive years of Democratic Governors; but,—with the Progressive party dwindling,—the Republicans feel that their chances are excellent. The Democratic plurality last year was less than twelve thousand votes.

*Kentucky
and Other
States*

Besides Massachusetts and Maryland, only Kentucky, Louisiana, and New Mexico are to elect State officers this fall; and in those States the Democrats usually have a safe majority. In Kentucky, the nominee of that party is ex-Representative Augustus O. Stanley, who gained nation-wide reputation through his Congressional probes into the affairs of the Steel and Tobacco trusts. Prohibition, rather than candidates, was the question before the voters in the primary. The defeated candidate had declared for State-wide prohibition, while Mr. Stanley favors the county-unit law. In Mississippi, after an unusually quiet campaign, Lieutenant-Governor Theodore G. Bilbo carried the Democratic primary, receiving more votes than his four opponents. With merely nominal opposition, he will be chosen Governor for a four-year term in November.

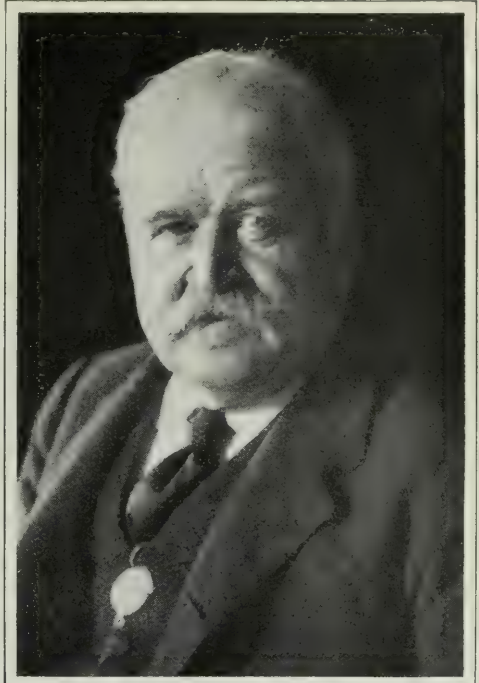
*New Land on
the
Arctic Map*

Late in September there came out of the Arctic regions, by way of Nome, Alaska, the first report from the explorer Stefansson that had been received since April, 1914. It will



Photograph by Paul Thompson

SIR WILLIAM VAN HORNE



Photograph by Pach Bros.

HON. JOHN D. LONG OF MASSACHUSETTS

be recalled that Stefansson had headed a Canadian expedition northward from Alaska in search of new Arctic land. It was known that his principal ship, the *Karluk*, had been lost in the ice and that only twelve of the twenty-five men on board had got back to civilization. But the intrepid young leader, with two of his companions, continued north in search of land. Stefansson had long believed that an exploring party in that region (north of Prince Patrick Island) could be sustained by animal food, and his experience after parting from the main body of the expedition fully confirmed his belief. The three men and their dog teams "lived on the country," using blubber for fuel and light. Stefansson's energetic and resourceful methods were rewarded by the discovery, on June 18, of land at 77 degrees and 43 minutes north latitude and 115 degrees and 43 minutes west longitude. He saw about 100 miles of coast line running south of east from the landing-place, but mountains were seen for at least fifty miles farther east. And from a point twenty miles inland hills were seen in all directions from north to east at a distance estimated at over fifty miles. With the exception of a few experts on Arctic conditions who knew Stefansson's peculiar fitness for his task, almost

everybody had long ago given up the explorer as lost. The receipt of this striking news of his discovery forms a dramatic and unlooked-for sequel to what had been accepted as a chapter of disasters. It puts new emphasis on the importance and possibilities of further research within the Arctic circle and adds another to the long list of American triumphs in the frozen North.

Two
Eminent
Americans

The Hon. John D. Long, of Massachusetts, who died on August 28 at the age of seventy-seven, had been Governor of Massachusetts, Member of Congress, and Secretary of the Navy under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt. It was he who selected Sampson to command the Atlantic fleet in the Spanish-American War and who ordered Dewey to attack the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay. Sir William Van Horne, long president of the Canadian Pacific Railway, died at Montreal on September 11. He, too, was an eminent American, a native of Illinois, who had worked his way up in the various branches of railroad service until he had reached the place of greatest power and responsibility in the transportation system of Canada. In later years he built up the principal railroad system of Cuba.

SOME PICTORIAL ASPECTS OF THE WAR



© by Brown & Dawson

WOMEN OF GALICIA, AUSTRIA, TAKING THE PLACES OF MEN IN THE FIELDS



© by Brown & Dawson

A GALICIAN VILLAGE AND SOME OF ITS CHILDREN

(Somehow this particular hamlet seems to have escaped the ravages of shot and shell)



AUSTRIAN SUBJECTS IN GALICIA RETURNING TO THEIR VILLAGES AFTER THE RUSSIAN RETREAT



RUSSIAN REFUGEES WHOSE VILLAGES HAVE BEEN LAID WASTE BY THEIR OWN RETREATING ARMIES



Photographs © Underwood & Underwood, New York

RUSSIAN SUBJECTS SEEKING REFUGE BEHIND THE AUSTRIAN LINES

(This illustration and the one immediately above depict the situation of countless thousands of non-combatants—mostly Jewish—in war-ridden Poland. The entire absence of able-bodied men among the refugees will be noticed)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

A FRENCH GENERAL'S QUARTERS IN THE ARGONNE REGION

(The fighting-line in France and Belgium has remained practically stationary for a year, and the officers' quarters have gradually been made substantial and comfortable)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

GERMAN OFFICERS' QUARTERS ON A WAR TRAIN IN GALICIA

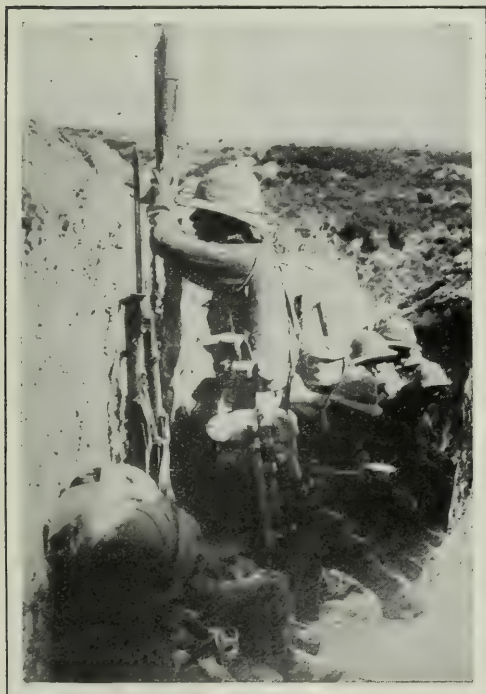
(The fighting-line on the Russian front has moved eastward, during recent months, at the rate of more than four miles a day,—and the chiefs of the invading armies are therefore using movable headquarters)



THROWING BOMBS BY HAND
THE TRENCHES OF THE OPPOSING ARMIES ARE SO CLOSE TOGETHER THAT THE USE OF
THROWN BOMBS HAS BECOME EXTENSIVE



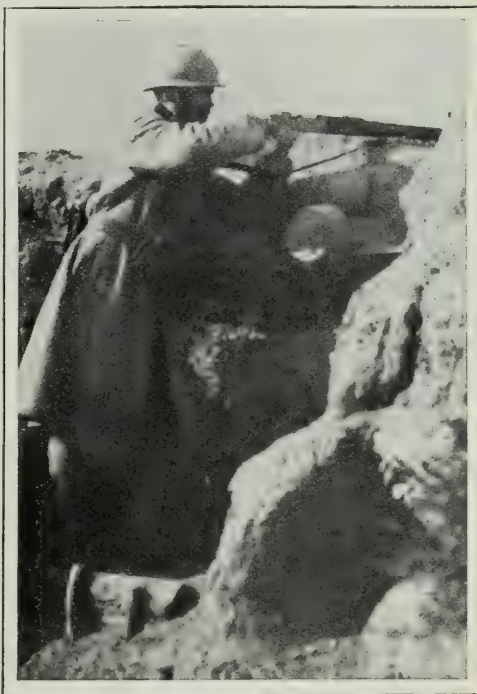
A MECHANICAL BOMB-THROWER



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

A PERISCOPE

(A British soldier on the Gallipoli Peninsula watching a Turkish position while himself sheltered from attack. The use of periscopes, adapted from the submarine, is now general throughout the armies)



Photograph by Paul Thompson

AN ARMORED HAT

(This French soldier is wearing a shrapnel-proof steel helmet. Protected from direct gunfire by his trench breastworks, he is now also protected from shrapnel shells which burst above him)

NEW DEVICES FOR DESTRUCTION AND PROTECTION, USED IN THE TRENCHES

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From August 21 to September 20, 1915)

The Last Part of August

August 21.—Italy declares herself in a state of war with Turkey; the reasons given are Turkish support of a revolt in Tripoli and prevention of the departure of Italian residents in Syria.

The British Government declares cotton absolute contraband.

A British submarine sinks a German dreadnought (believed to be the battle cruiser *Moltke*) in the Baltic.

August 22.—In the Vosges region, the French capture three important peaks after a month of continued assaults.

August 23.—An official Russian statement declares that two German cruisers and eight torpedo boats were destroyed in an attempt to force an entrance into the Gulf of Riga lasting from August 16 to 20; German losses are denied by Germany, with a statement that two Russian gunboats were lost.

The Russian fortress of Ossowiec, northeast of Warsaw, is captured by Germans.

The German naval and military station at Zeebrugge, on the Belgian coast, is bombarded by a British fleet of forty cruisers and destroyers.

Premier Okuma is quoted as saying that Japan has decided to give greater assistance to Russia in the prosecution of the war, in the manufacture of war supplies.

August 24.—The tension in the United States over the sinking of the *Arabic*, with loss of American lives, is relieved by a statement from the German Ambassador, asking that the taking of a definite stand be postponed until the German version of the incident is received.

A British statement, declared to be authoritative, places the number of German soldiers in the field at 1,800,000 in the West and 1,400,000 in the East (together with 1,120,000 Austrians); German casualties are estimated to have totaled 300,000 killed, 540,000 missing and disabled, and 810,000 wounded.

August 25.—Brest-Litovsk, the most important fortress on Russia's second line of defense, is occupied by German troops; the Russians also withdraw from Bialystok; the great German offensive movement in Poland has thus advanced more than 100 miles in the three weeks since Warsaw fell.

August 26.—A British naval aviator, Arthur W. Bigsworth, is officially declared to have destroyed a German submarine with bombs, near Ostend.

An official French report chronicles many recent raids by Allied aviators, in two of which more than sixty aeroplanes participated.

August 28.—A raid of six German aeroplanes upon Paris is checked by French aviators, and one of the German machines is destroyed at a height of 11,000 feet.

August 31.—Foreign exchange rates in New York City fall to new low levels; London ex-

change drops to \$4.55¾ on the pound, 30 points below par.

German assaults, it is declared, result in the recovery of ground lost to the French in the Vosges region on August 22.

Alphonse Pegoud, the famous French aviator, is killed in an air duel with a German aviator.

The First Week of September

September 1.—The diplomatic controversy between the United States and Germany approaches a satisfactory conclusion through the declaration of the German Ambassador at Washington that hereafter liners will not be sunk by German submarines without warning.

The Russian fortress of Luzk, near the Galician border, is captured by Austro-German troops.

An official German estimate places the Russian casualties, since May 2, at 300,000 killed and wounded, and 1,100,000 captured.

September 2.—The Russian War Office announces the evacuation of the fortress of Grodno (the last of the fortified points in Russian Poland, on the second line of defense); thus within a month since the occupation of Warsaw, German and Austrian troops have captured twelve Russian fortresses.

The British Admiralty reports the torpedoing of four Turkish transports, in the Dardanelles region, by British submarines.

September 3.—General Alexiev is appointed Chief of the Russian General Staff, and General Ruzsky is made commander of the armies in the North.

September 4.—The Canadian liner *Hesperian*, bound for Montreal, is struck by a mine or torpedo off the southern coast of Ireland; twenty-four of the passengers and crew are lost.

September 6.—Forty French airships bombard Saarbrücken, in Rhenish Prussia, as a reprisal for the bombardment of Luneville by German aviators on September 1.

September 7.—The German Government gives to the American Ambassador a memorandum relating to the sinking of the *Arabic* on August 19; it is declared that the submarine commander had believed the steamer was about to ram his vessel, and launched a torpedo in self-defense; the loss of American lives is regretted, but obligation to grant indemnity is denied.

Czar Nicholas places himself in active command of the Russian armies, transferring Grand Duke Nicholas to command of the army in the Caucasus.

The German Admiralty announces that the submarine *U 27* has not been heard from for a month, and is probably lost.

It is stated at London that the British Government has taken over from private control 715 factories transformed into plants for the manufacture of munitions.

The Second Week of September

September 8.—German Zeppelin airships (for the first time, it is declared) drop bombs in the heart of London, more than thirty persons being killed.

The Conservative majority in the Russian Duma is displaced, after a reorganization of groups, by a coalition of Liberal and Progressive elements.

In the Argonne region, German forces under the Crown Prince launch a violent attack against the French, and gain considerable ground.

September 9.—The United States asks Austria-Hungary to recall its Ambassador, Dr. Dumba, because of his connection with a movement to cripple American industries engaged in the manufacture of munitions for the Allies, and because of his employment of an American citizen, under an American passport, to carry official dispatches.

The Russian War Office reports that, since September 3, successes on the River Sereth in Galicia have resulted in the capture of more than 17,000 Austro-Germans and many guns.

September 10.—An Anglo-French commission arrives in New York to arrange a system of credit, for the payment of war munitions and foodstuffs sold by Americans to the Allies.

September 13.—In announcing the sixth raid of German airships on the east coast of England, it is stated that Rear Admiral Sir Percy Scott, an authority on gunnery, has been placed in command of the defenses of London against airship attacks.

September 14.—Official announcement of British casualties up to August 21 shows totals of 75,957 killed, 251,059 wounded, and 54,967 missing.

The Russian War Office declares that 40,000 Austro-German prisoners were taken between August 30 and September 12.

The German Foreign Office endorses the pledge communicated by Ambassador Bernstorff, that passenger ships will not be sunk by German submarines without warning, and declares it is practically certain that the *Hesperian* was not thus attacked.

The Third Week of September

September 15.—The British House of commons votes a new war credit of \$1,250,000,000, bringing the total up to \$6,310,000,000.

Premier Asquith informs the House that nearly 3,000,000 men have enlisted in the British army, and War Secretary Kitchener tells the Lords that reinforcements of 210,000 men have actually been sent to the front [making a total of about 650,000], enabling the British to take over from the French seventeen miles of additional front.

It is declared at Athens that Bulgaria and Turkey have signed an agreement ceding to Bulgaria territory up to the Maritza River, including the railway line of Dedeagatch.

September 16.—The Allied powers (according to a French report) request Bulgaria to declare definitely her position.

American meat products to the value of \$15,000,000 are confiscated by a British prize court; the cargoes were seized in November, 1914, on the ground that although consigned to a Danish port they were intended for ultimate consumption by the German army and navy.



THE RUSSIAN GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS

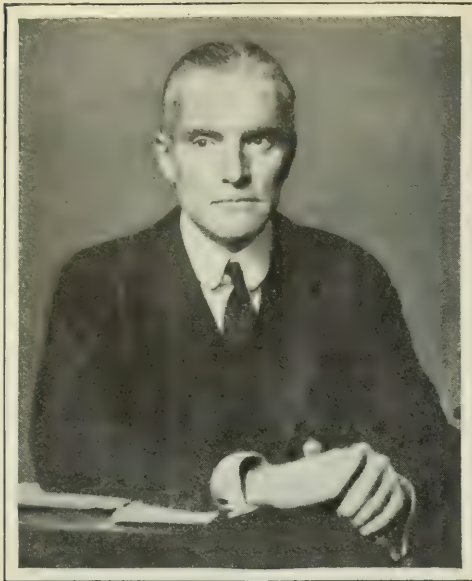
(Last month Czar Nicholas placed himself in active command of the Russian armies, transferring the Grand Duke to the Caucasus, to fight the Turks. All authorities agree that the Grand Duke is a brilliant strategist. He conducted a masterly offensive campaign against the Austrians early in the war, and more recently, when handicapped by a shortage of ammunition, successfully withdrew his armies before the Austro-Germans)

The German invasion of Poland reaches Pinsk, having moved eastward 100 miles from Brest-Litovsk in twenty-two days.

The Russian Duma is prorogued by the Czar, for two months, it being declared that its work is finished.

British casualties at the Dardanelles up to August 21 are made public; 17,608 men were killed; 61,628 wounded, and 8394 are missing.

The British Admiralty announces that as the submarine *E 7* has not returned it must be assumed that the Turkish report of its destruction off the Dardanelles is correct.



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HON. FRANK L. POLK, COUNSELLOR OF THE STATE
DEPARTMENT

(Mr. Polk was appointed last month, the office having been vacant since the elevation of Mr. Lansing to succeed Mr. Bryan. He will be the principal assistant of Secretary Lansing, and Acting Secretary in his chief's absence. At the time of his appointment, Mr. Polk was Corporation Counsel of the City of New York, where during recent years he has been a prominent member of the reform element in the Democratic party)

The French Minister of Finance asks for an appropriation of \$1,240,000,000 for war expenses for the last quarter of the year; from figures which he quotes it is estimated that the war is costing the four great belligerents \$56,000,000 a day.

September 18.—The German Army Headquarters announces the capture of Vilna, a strongly fortified railroad center for several weeks one of the principal objectives of the German offensive.

September 19.—The British and French financial commissioners, it is learned, have practically completed arrangements with a nation-wide syndicate of American bankers for a loan of from half to three-quarters of a billion dollars.

The Commission for Relief in Belgium announces, at London, that it collected and disbursed \$50,000,000 during eight months, more than half of which came from Belgians residing abroad; the number of destitute persons is placed at more than 3,000,000.

September 20.—The Bulgarian army is ordered mobilized, "in the interest of armed neutrality."

A German official communication announces that German artillery has been operating against the Serbians, across the Danube southeast of Belgrade.

A report of fighting on the Gallipoli Peninsula, by General Sir Ian Hamilton, describes the difficulties and losses of the British troops and praises the valor of their Turkish adversaries.

September 19.—The Greek steamer *Athinai* is destroyed by fire at sea, her passengers and crew being rescued by other vessels.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From August 21 to September 20, 1915)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

August 22.—The Commission on Industrial Relations ends its labors; the members fail to agree and render three separate reports.

August 24.—The Eastman Kodak Company is declared to be an illegal combination in restraint of trade, in the United States District Court at Buffalo, and is ordered dissolved.

August 26.—The New York Constitutional Convention reverses itself and rejects an amendment requiring ability to read and write English as a qualification for voting.

August 28.—The President appoints Frank L. Polk, of New York City, to be Counsellor of the State Department, and Otto Praeger to be Second Assistant Postmaster-General.

August 30.—The New York Constitutional Convention agrees upon a short-ballot proposal,—four elective State officers only,—after a long debate characterized by an arraignment of "invisible government," by Elihu Root (see page 465).

September 10.—The proposed constitution for New York State is adopted by the members of the Constitutional Convention, by vote of 118 to 33, and the convention adjourns.

September 14.—The voters of South Carolina

adopt State-wide prohibition by a large majority; the law will go into effect on January 1. . . . In the Maryland primaries, Emerson C. Harrington (Dem.) and Orvington E. Weller (Rep.) are nominated for Governor.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

September 4.—With the capture of Saltillo by General Obregon, Carranza is reported to control all central Mexico, from Mexico City to Torreon.

September 7.—It is declared at Peking that the project of reestablishing a monarchical form of government has been abandoned, but that the Presidency may be made a permanent and hereditary office.

September 13.—The Carranza forces in Mexico compel the Villa troops to withdraw from Torreon, an important commercial and military center.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

August 30.—Pascual Oroszco, a prominent Mexican military leader, is killed while participating in a marauding expedition across the border in Texas.

September 1-2.—Marauding bands of Mexicans

continue to harass communities in Texas and Arizona, near the border.

September 4.—Rear Admiral Caperton proclaims martial law in Haitian territory occupied by United States forces, declaring that the new government is unable to control conditions although endeavoring to do so.

September 9.—The United States informs the Austro-Hungarian Government that Ambassador Constantin Theodor Dumba is no longer acceptable to the United States, because of his attempt to instigate strikes in American manufacturing plants engaged in the production of war supplies for the Allies.

September 10.—General Carranza, whose supporters have recently gained important military victories in Mexico, rejects the peace proposals of the United States and the Central and South American diplomats.

September 16.—A treaty between the United States and Haiti is signed at Port au Prince; it is understood to provide for American supervision of Haitian finances and constabulary.

September 18.—The American Secretary of State again meets with the diplomatic representatives of Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala, regarding the situation in Mexico, and the conference agrees to recognize the faction which at the end of three weeks has best demonstrated ability to maintain order.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

August 29.—A second shipment of gold and securities from London (valued at \$45,000,000) arrives in New York City, to improve British credit and restore normal exchange. . . . The United States submarine *F-4* is refloated in Honolulu harbor, more than five months after the accident which caused it to sink.

September 4.—It is declared that an American chemist has discovered a process for making dyes from coal tar, which will not only relieve the present shortage of German products, but will built up a permanent American dyestuff industry. . . . The national amateur golf championship is won by Robert A. Gardner, of Chicago, in the matches at Detroit.

September 7.—The national lawn tennis championship is won by William M. Johnston, of San Francisco, in play at Forest Hills, N. Y.

September 8.—A third shipment of gold and securities arrives in New York from London, valued at nearly \$30,000,000; the value of gold in the three shipments is more than \$58,000,000.

September 17.—Word is received at Nome, Alaska, from the Canadian Arctic explorer Vilhjalmur Stefansson, who had not been heard from for eighteen months; he reports he has discovered land northwest of Prince Patrick Island.

OBITUARY

August 17.—General John C. Black, formerly Commissioner of Pensions and ex-president of the Civil Service Commission, 76.

August 21.—Rear-Admiral Alexander Hugh McCormick, U. S. N. retired, 74.

August 22.—Charles A. Fosdick ("Harry Castlemon"), author of stories for boys, 73.

August 28.—John D. Long, Secretary of State under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, and ex-Governor of Massachusetts, 76.

August 30.—Paul Armstrong, playwright, 46.

August 31.—Charles T. Wills, a prominent New York builder, 64. . . . Albert Henry Walker, of New York, an authority on patent law, 70. . . . Jacob G. Metcalfe, former president of the Mexican International Railway, 66. . . . Antonio Flores, ex-president of Ecuador.

September 1.—Marquis Kaoru Inouye, one of the Elder Statesmen of Japan, 80. . . . Felix Michael Julius Poppenberg, the German essayist and historian, 46.

September 4.—Cardinal Cladius Francis Vazary, Primate of Hungary, 83. . . . Courtland Cushing Matson, ex-Representative from Indiana, 75. . . . Major Holmes Conrad, formerly Solicitor General of the United States, 75.

September 5.—Col. Charles H. Boynton, a widely known Washington newspaper man, 79.

September 6.—Edward Bruce Moore, former Commissioner of Patents, 63. . . . Mrs. Josie Greve Oppenheim, a pioneer in the woman's club movement in the Northwest.

September 7.—Dr. Gross Alexander, editor of the *Methodist Review*, 63. . . . Michael Jenkins, of Baltimore, a prominent lay member of the Catholic Church, 72.

September 9.—George Hazeltine, a noted patent lawyer of New York, 86. . . . Gen. Franklin Fisher, chief signal officer of the United States Army during the Civil War, 81.

September 10.—Senator Eugene Boucher de Boucherville, former Premier of Quebec, 93. . . . John Howard Van Amringe, for more than twenty years dean of Columbia University, 80. . . . Sir Claude MacDonald, British Minister at Peking during the Boxer uprising, 63.

September 11.—William Sprague, Governor of Rhode Island during the Civil War and former United States Senator, 84. . . . Sir William Cornelius Van Horne, the American railroad man who developed the Canadian Pacific Railroad system, 72. . . . Dr. Karl E. Guthe, dean of the University of Michigan, 49.

September 12.—Brig. Gen. George Alexander Forsyth, U. S. A. retired, the noted Indian fighter, 78. . . . Martin Luther D'Ooge, for many years professor of Greek at the University of Michigan, 76. . . . Lyman U. Humphrey, twice Governor of Kansas, 70.

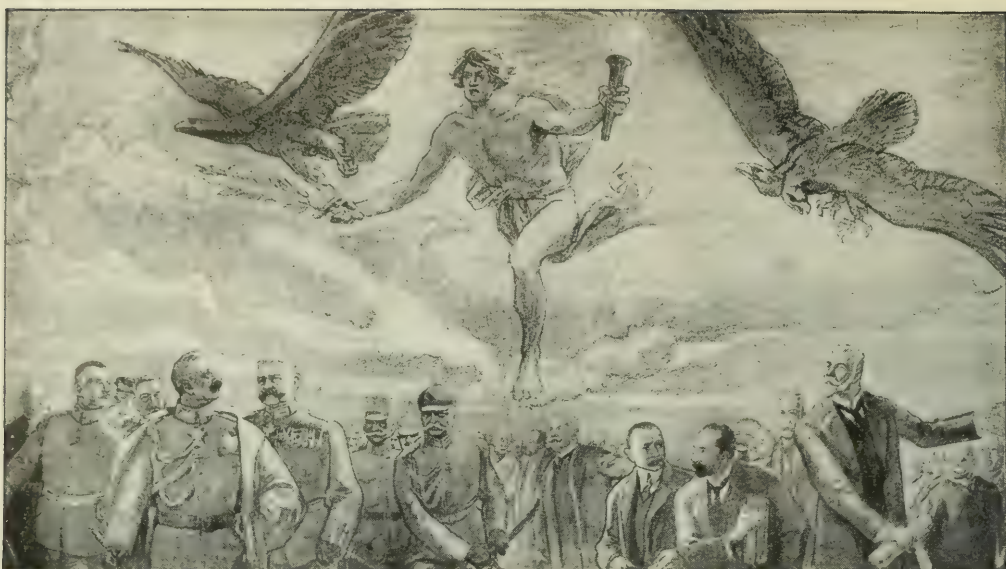
September 13.—Prof. John Phelps Taylor, of Andover Theological Seminary, a noted preacher and biblical scholar, 74. . . . Gen. Andrew L. Harris, former Governor of Ohio, 82. . . . Dr. John Evans Sheppard, an authority on diseases of the ear, 56.

September 14.—Serenio S. Pratt, secretary of the New York Chamber of Commerce and noted financial expert, 57. . . . Gen. Edward Hastings Ripley, a prominent Civil War veteran, 76.

September 15.—Prof. Alexander Van Milligen, a noted English historian, 75. . . . Henderson Middleton Somerville, president of the Board of United States General Appraisers, 79.

September 16.—Cardinal Benedetto Lorenzelli, 62.

September 18.—Rt. Rev. Thomas J. Conaty, Bishop of the Roman Catholic Church, 78. . . . Marquis F. Dickinson, a distinguished Massachusetts lawyer, 75.



THE GERMAN SPIRIT

(The cartoonist sees a brilliant future for Germany, with "its glorious heroes in the field and its splendid men of genius at home." The portraits include those of the Kaiser and the Crown Prince, Field-Marschals von Hindenburg and von Mackensen, Admiral von Tirpitz, Count Zeppelin, Foreign Minister von Jagow, Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg, and some of the leaders of German finance and industry.)

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

EUROPEAN WAR CARTOONS— CHIEFLY GERMAN

IN November, 1914, this REVIEW reproduced a large number of German and Austrian cartoons that had appeared since

the beginning of the war, three months before. These drawings represented very graphically the martial spirit that was abroad in Germany at that time. As this REVIEW then pointed out, it was not the General Staff and the military leaders alone who entered upon the war with self-confidence and assurance; but the leaders of thought and of opinion in the country all seemed to be of one accord. This unanimity somewhat surprised the outside world, and it is not strange that its vigorous expression through the medium of boldly conceived cartoons, bordering on the gross, was a shock to many sensitive souls in the nations that Germany had set out to fight.

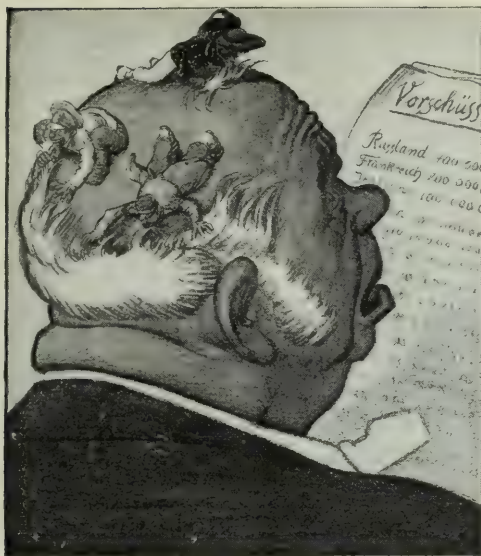
The German and Austrian cartoonists in their work at the present time, after a year of fighting, betray no sagging of spirit; but their drawings reflect the optimism and self-assurance of a people whose pathway thus far has led from one victory to another. It is not so much resentment towards other powers that these cartoons express as contempt for their military achievements.

Above all the Berlin cartoonist rejoices in the fun he is able to have these days with John Bull. He especially delights in Eng-



THE GERMAN HERCULES

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin).



THE FINANCIER

Slowly but surely they are devouring the hair from honest old John Bull's head.

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

land's financial discomfiture and is reconciled to the thought that even the Vampire Dollar, as he characterizes the American money power, may perform some useful service if it can get the better of perfidious Albion.

It was remarked a year ago that the German cartoon papers were especially savage in their references to England and the same thing is true to-day. Not only do they gloat over John Bull's money difficulties, but they hint at the keen enjoyment that would be experienced if Great Britain should suddenly be relieved of an outpost like Gibraltar.



LOUIS XIV.: L'ETAT C'EST MOI!

JOHN BULL: "International law—it is I!"

From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)

England's attitude on many matters of international law has long been regarded by Germany as arrogant—just as the Allies now characterize Germany's own position. The cartoon above, from *Kladderadatsch*, ex-



THE DEPRECIATION OF ENGLISH MONEY

(The Vampire Dollar is sucking Mr. Sterling's blood. Even a vampire may have its value)

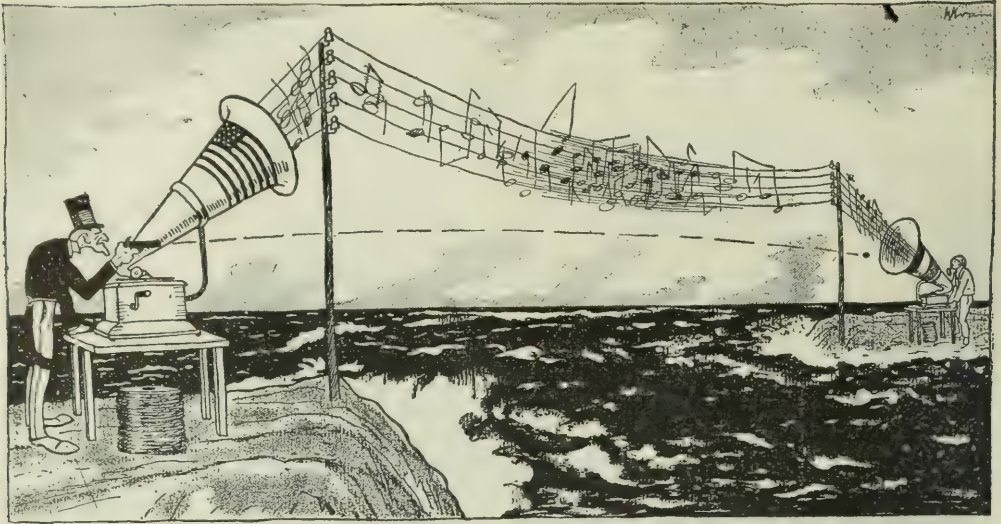
From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



GIBRALTAR

If the Spaniard should seize the opportunity and pluck the thorn from his foot—it would astonish England.

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



THE DISCORD IN THE EXCHANGE OF GERMAN-AMERICAN NOTES

In the telegraphic duet between Michel and Uncle Sam so many disturbing sounds have recently intervened that no real harmony can be attained.

From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart)

presses this idea through an adaptation of the French King's epigram,—“I am the state!”

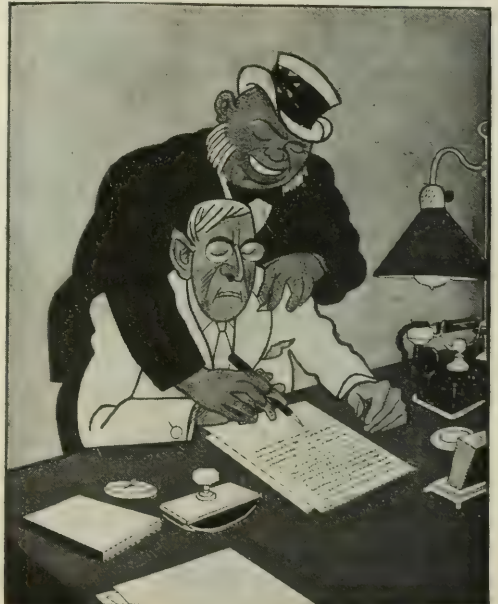
The German cartoonists adopt the view that England has tried to coerce America and has even instigated American policy. Emphatic paragraphs in President Wilson's notes

to Germany on the question of submarine warfare are attributed by at least two of the Berlin cartoon papers to John Bull as the “dictator”. The cartoon on this page from *Lustige Blätter* is virtually duplicated in sentiment by the cartoon from *Kladderadatsch* reproduced on page 394 of this issue.



ANXIOUS POSEIDON (to the mermaids): “For heaven's sake, children, no stirring up of the seal! That vessel yonder carries a Yankee passenger, and should anything happen Wilson will at once send me a note!”

From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)



THE “DICTATOR”

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



PRESIDENT WILSON DEPICTED AS A TIGHT-ROPE ARTIST AT NIAGARA FALLS
From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

The details of the matters at issue between the United States and Germany are seldom depicted in cartoons. The general subject of submarine attacks on merchant vessels has been avoided for the most part. On this page (lower left) there is a whimsical reference to American sensitiveness on the subject.

President Wilson's difficulty in keeping balance while conducting negotiations with England and Germany is portrayed above.

Mexico, meanwhile, is taking an unfair advantage of the situation.

Trying to fly the "humanity" kite with bombs for a tail is the German idea of America's participation in the munitions trade, as *Kladderadatsch* puts it in the cartoon below.

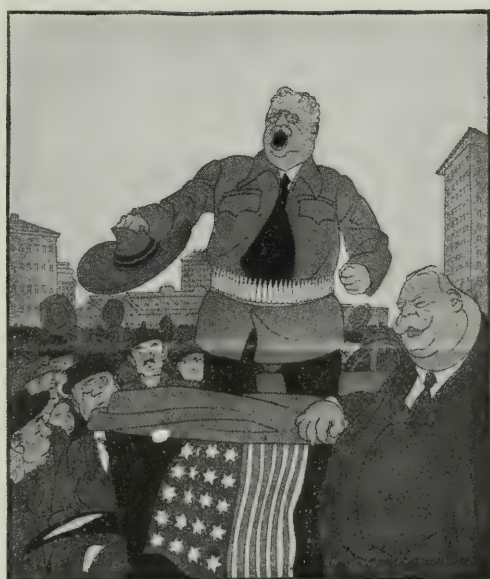
In far-off Vienna Colonel Roosevelt is figured as an agitator inciting his countrymen to war. To the Austrians he is still "Rough-rider Roosevelt".



LOVE'S LABOR LOST

"A fine kite, my dear Wilson, but you will not get it to fly high with bombs for a tail."

From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)



ROUGHRIDER ROOSEVELT

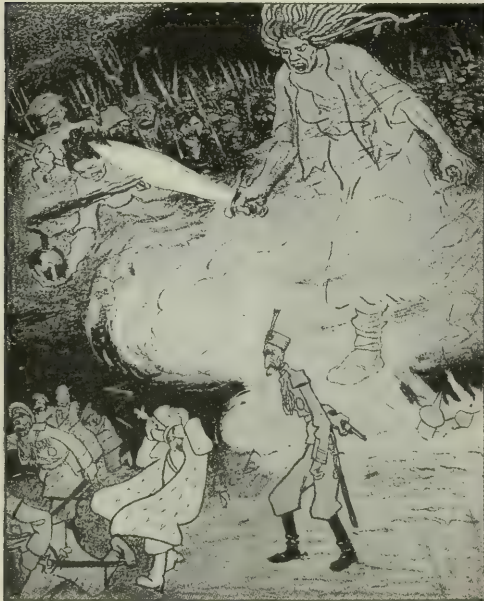
"If we place America in the saddle she will know how to ride!"

From *Die Muskete* (Vienna)



THE CZAR (to Poland): "I present you your freedom."
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

The continued retreat of the Russian armies has been followed by rumors of grave disturbances in the Czar's empire. The practical retirement of the Grand Duke Nicholas, with the assumption of active command by the Czar himself, was at first believed to be an indication of the lessening influence of the Russian bureaucracy; but when the ses-



UP TO THE NECK

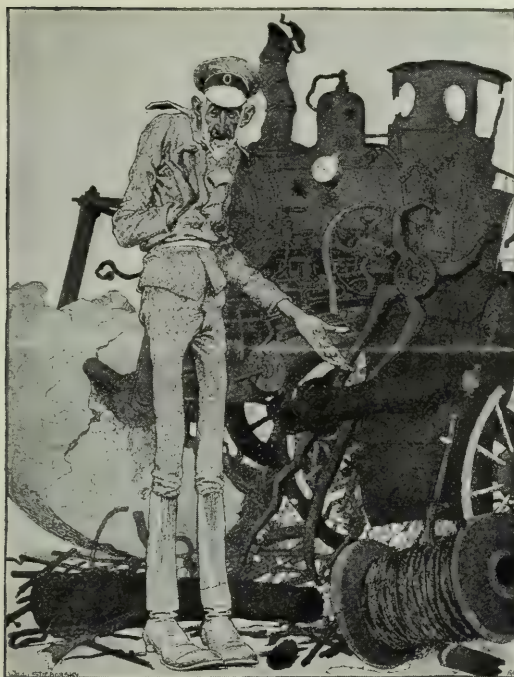
NICHOLAS: "My time is drawing near. If I don't conquer the enemy—revolution will conquer me."

From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart)



THE RUSSIAN PEASANT CARRYING THE AUTOCRACY ON HIS BACK

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



OLD IRON

"An opportunity! On account of damage to be got rid of at any price!"

From *Die Muskete* (Vienna)

sions of the national assembly were suspended

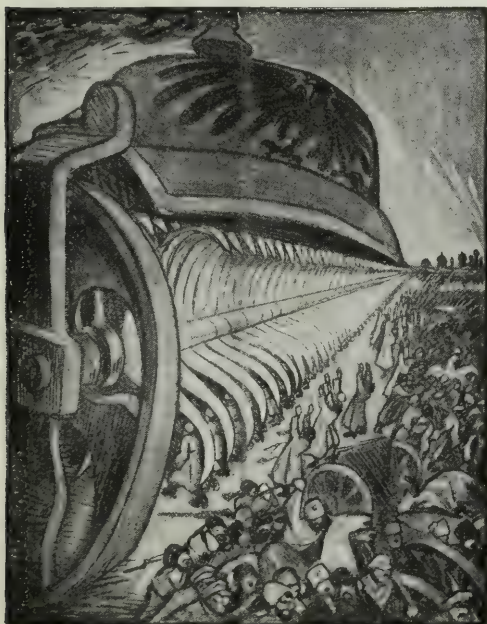


THE SUPREME COMMAND

Nicholas—as the one who has been most often beaten—is appointed Supreme General-in-Chief (Generalissimus) by the Allied Powers.

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

that presumption had to be abandoned. The German cartoonists think that they can see a revolution drawing near in Russia.



A GERMAN THEFT OF A RUSSIAN PATENT

"Save himself who can: the confounded Germans have stolen our capital idea of the steam-roller and improved it in the meanest way!"—A Russian complaint.

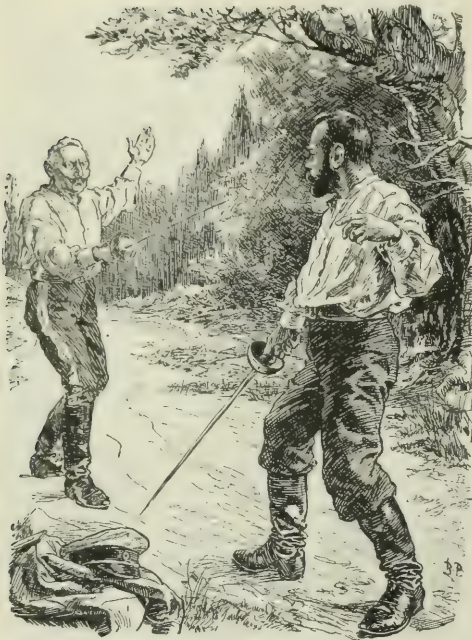
From *Jugend* © (Munich)



IN THE ROENTGEN LABORATORY

DR. MORS: "Yes, my dear granny Russia, there is nothing left to be done—internally, too, matters are now in bad shape with you!"

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



THE ADVANCE THAT FAILED

THE KAISER: "Have you had enough?"

THE TSAR: "No. Have you?"

From *Punch* (London)

No one doubts that not only Germany and Great Britain, but all the other belligerents as well, have had enough. Germany, alone, however, is in a position to accept peace.



TRIPOLI—THE FIRST OF THE REDEEMED PROVINCES

From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)

THE RUSSIAN BEAR: "I WISH I WAS BACK IN SIBERIA"

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

Two cartoons on this page are British; all the others in the department are pro-German.



PEACE TALK

KAISER: "At the present rate of progress of my destructive sword there will be peace before the year is out."

SULTAN OF TURKEY: "And supposing I can't wait till then?"

From *Punch* (London)



THE BATTLESHIP "OHIO" IN EAST CHAMBER OF PEDRO MIGUEL LOCKS, PANAMA

(Tests have shown that twenty-one battleships of this class could be passed through the canal in one day)

THE WEAK POINTS IN OUR NATIONAL DEFENSES

BY J. BERNARD WALKER

(Chairman Navy Committee, National Security League)

THE most encouraging feature about the present nation-wide agitation in favor of providing adequate national defenses is its spontaneity. The lessons of the great European War have sunk deeply into the consciousness of the people of the United States. The invasion and subjugation of Belgium by Germany (one of the guarantors of the integrity of that industrious and peace-loving country) has taught Americans that their own distaste for war and avowed desire to be left to the uninterrupted pursuit of the arts of peace is no guarantee against ultimate invasion and conquest by that great military machine, which has been set in motion for the overrunning and conquest of Europe.

The lesson of the folly of unpreparedness, as taught so dramatically by the war, has been laid well to heart, and the people of

these United States, and, let us hope, their Congress, have at last set themselves to an intelligent study of the question of our naval and military preparedness, and the steps which must be taken to render our coasts secure against invasion.

Thanks to the foresight of our naval and military men, who for many years past have appreciated both the sinister menace of European militarism and our inability to resist a powerful attack, a careful study has been made of the extent to which our naval and land forces must be increased to render the country secure.

The plans of defense are on file; it is for the people to demand of their representatives in Congress that they vote at once the appropriations necessary to carry out these plans to the last detail.

The national defenses of the United

States are threefold: the navy, the coast defenses, and the mobile field army. Of these three, the first line of defense, and by far the most important, is the navy. If this be maintained at a sufficient standard in numbers, equipment, and efficiency, the United States may be considered to be secure against attack by any foreign power.

OUR NAVAL STANDARDS

As matters stand to-day, our navy, measured in terms of its fighting ships, is fully 40 per cent. below the standard which would render it an impregnable defense against invasion. The 60 per cent. of ships which we do possess, moreover, are woefully underofficered and undermanned. Furthermore, the navy as a whole is badly balanced; lacking, as it does, certain indispensable types of ships, such as battle-cruisers and fast scouts, and being deficient in destroyers and sea-going submarines.

In considering the question of our naval defense as represented by the fleet, we must rid ourselves of the notion that the three thousand miles of ocean separating us from Europe is in itself a form of protection. On the contrary, the size and speed of modern ships, both of war and commerce, have brought this country within a week to ten days' steaming of the warships and military transports of Europe, and because of the vast stretch of our coastline and the secrecy that pertains to the sea, it may be stated without fear of contradiction that our maritime frontier renders us more open to a surprise attack than if our Atlantic Coast were a land frontier running cheek by jowl with Europe.

The Spanish War taught the American people the controlling influence exerted by the command of the sea, and so deeply was the lesson laid to heart that, within the brief period of six years (1898 to 1904) Congress, by its liberal appropriations, raised the United States to the position of second naval power in the world. Shortly thereafter Great Britain set afloat the first dreadnought and thereby revolutionized naval construction and upset all existing naval valuations. Every great power but ourselves began feverishly to reconstruct its navy along dreadnought lines, and increased its naval budgets. The United States, with suicidal folly, began, in this critical hour, to neglect its navy, being more concerned, apparently, with pensions and the pork barrel. So far from maintaining our position as second naval power, we have been steadily falling

behind in the past ten years, until we are now a third-class power with France rapidly crowding us into the fourth position.

To-day there is one first-class naval power, Great Britain, with forty dreadnoughts in the first line; one second-class power, Germany, with twenty-two dreadnoughts; and three navies of the third class: the United States, with eight dreadnoughts in commission and two more nearing completion, and France and Japan, which are pushing us closely in the number of first-line ships built and building.

Previous to the European War it was recognized (though not openly stated) by our Navy Department that it was necessary for the security of the United States that our navy should be at least equal to that of Germany,—the distance of Germany from her base, if we were driven to fight a defensive war, giving us a decisive advantage. The spoliation of Belgium and the cynical disregard by Germany of neutral rights have removed the embargo of polite silence, and it is now openly (if unofficially) avowed in the Navy Department that for the security of the United States it is necessary to match the German fleet, make good the neglect of the past decade, and utilize our full ship-building resources, governmental and private, in bringing our navy up to its legitimate position of second in strength.

The next Congress should authorize the building of six battle-cruisers of 33,000 tons displacement and 28 knots speed, carrying a battery of eight of the new 16-inch naval guns,—the most powerful gun in existence. The large displacement would admit of these powerful ships carrying twelve inches of armor; and this would enable them to "lie in the line" against the most powerful ships of the enemy. In successive years Congress should authorize not less than four dreadnoughts per year, until the desired standard of strength has been reached.

The coming Congress should make good, also, our total lack of fast scouts. Of these, not less than a dozen of 5000 tons displacement and 30 knots speed should be authorized, and the program should call for at least twenty-four destroyers and as many sea-going submarines of twenty knots, or more, surface speed.

Our navy is perilously underofficered and undermanned. We are short about 1000 officers and 20,000 men. The next Congress should authorize, without discussion, this urgently needed addition to the personnel.

THE SYSTEM OF COAST DEFENSE

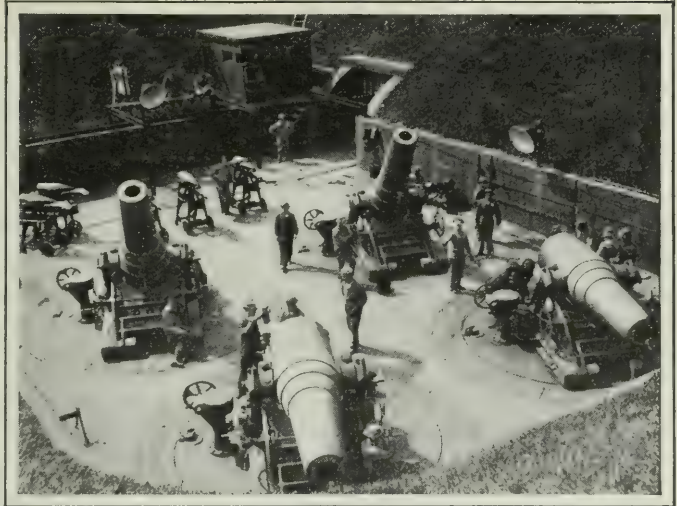
It is unfortunate that the great system of fortifications, known as our Coast Defenses, should have been so named; for it is a fact that the majority of Americans have the idea that these forts protect our long coast line against invasion. They do nothing of the kind. Built at the entrances to our principal harbors for the protection of the maritime cities, they stand guard over a very limited portion of our long coast line,—a stretch, on the average, of not more than 15 to 20 miles at each defended harbor. Between these fortified points at such cities as Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and the entrance to the Chesapeake, there are stretches of hundreds of miles which, being utterly undefended, are open to invasion by an expeditionary force.

As for the coast fortifications themselves, although they are the most complete of their kind in the world, they have the very serious defect that their guns, mostly twelve-inch, are surpassed both in range and weight of projectiles by the naval guns with which modern fighting ships are being equipped. When our forts were built the maximum

range at which battleships could do effective shooting was about 8000 yards. Our twelve-inch guns were given a maximum range of 13,000 yards, which is their maximum range to-day. In the intervening years since our coast forts were planned, the naval gun has been vastly improved. In the engagements of the war fighting has begun at 18,000 yards and hits have been made at 17,000 yards. The fifteen-inch guns of the *Queen Elizabeth* fire a 1950-pound shell with a range (extreme) of nearly 24,000 yards. The most modern ships could anchor several thousand yards outside the range of our coast-defense guns and proceed to silence our batteries, unmolested and with great deliberation.

Fortunately the range of our guns can be extended to about 20,000 yards by increasing their maximum elevation from the present low limit of 10 degrees (corresponding to 13,000 yards) to 15 degrees (corresponding to about 20,000 yards). This can be done at moderate expense, and Congress should at once appropriate the money to cover this work.

Like every other branch of our national defenses, the coast fortifications are undermanned. At present there are 16,000 men in our



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TWELVE-INCH MORTARS AT FORT TOTTON, NEW YORK HARBOR
(The two mortars in the rear are seen at the proper elevation for firing)



© International News Service, New York

FIRING THE MORTARS AT FORT TOTTON

(Projectiles hit a target 100 feet in diameter at a distance of four miles)

coast artillery,—not even sufficient for one relief. The number should be increased by at least 12,000 men.

THE ARMY: REGULARS AND MILITIA

Our third and last line of defense, should the fleet be sunk and the forts defending our ports and naval dockyards be taken, would be the mobile army.

And what is the actual strength (not the paper strength) of our mobile army, that is to say, the army that could take the field against the invader?

Just 90,000 men, made up of 30,000 regulars and 60,000 effective militia,—or less than the total number of casualties suffered on more than one occasion in *single engagements* of the European War.

And let it not be forgotten that Germany, within ten days after a declaration of war, if the fleet were destroyed, could land 250,000 of her veteran troops, fully equipped with field guns, howitzers, machine guns, transport, and all the necessary equipment for a smashing campaign. Meanwhile our 90,000 effective regulars and militia would be scattered from Maine to California; and *it would take at least thirty to forty days to concentrate these forces and move them as a compact army against the invader.*

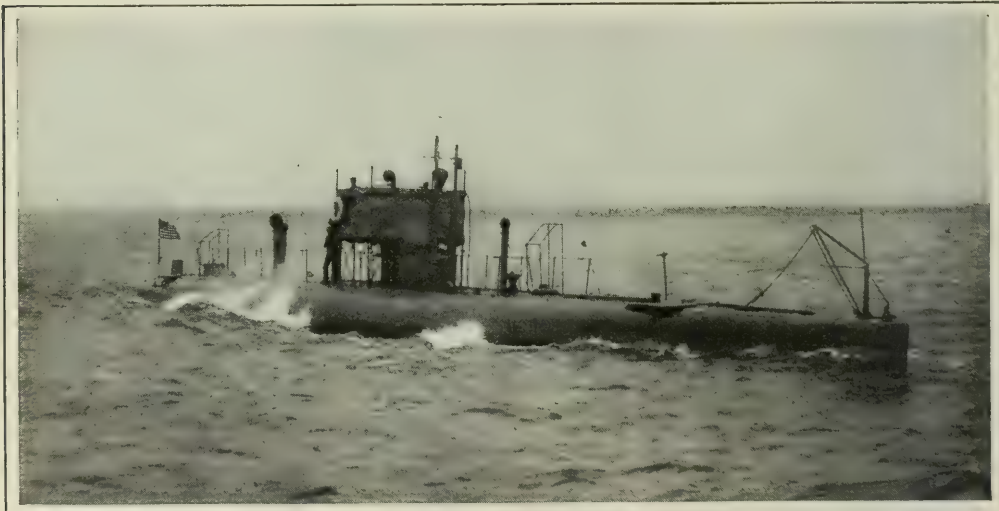
Moreover, when they were concentrated, our troops would be short of field artillery, short of field howitzers, short of machine guns, short of ammunition, and short of transport, and our officers would be new to the task of handling so large a body of men.

The remedy? To take the first shock of invasion we should maintain constantly in the continental United States an effective regular army of 125,000 men, and the militia should be so enlarged that it could at any time put in the field 375,000 effective troops, these 500,000 men being fully equipped with artillery, transport, and all necessary means for rapid concentration and swift attack.

Back of this first line should be a trained citizen army of half a million, capable of quick concentration at depots in which at all times should be maintained the necessary artillery, ammunition, and equipment,—with adequate reserves,—for field operations on the largest scale extending over a protracted period.

Properly to lead this army of defense, we should require not less than 40,000 trained officers. These can be secured by the enlargement of West Point, and by the extension of those student and civilian camps which have been showing such excellent results during the past summer at Plattsburg and elsewhere.

Our national defenses are honeycombed with weak points. These can be made good along the lines suggested above. The peril to the country is great and insistent. The question of making good the shameful neglect of the past is one for Congress to decide; and the decision one way or the other will depend upon whether patriotism or politics is to rule in the halls of Congress during the coming winter months.



© E. Muller, Jr.

ONE OF THE AMERICAN SUBMARINES

CRUCIAL WAR SITUATIONS AS AUTUMN BEGINS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. STATISTICS OF WAR

MORE interesting than any battle news in a month in which the campaign progress was slight was the recrudescence of peace talk, of peace talk which, however vague in character, clearly defined certain possibilities and unmistakably had its origin in German quarters. Not since von Kluck approached Paris in the previous year had there been any such detailed discussion in the press and the circumstances were not wholly dissimilar.

Before discussing in detail this peace talk, I purpose to set forth briefly the statistics of the first year of the war, believing that they contain alike the explanation of the reasons why the Austro-German victors should be willing to make peace and the Allies, so far unsuccessful, should resolutely refuse all opportunity to end the strife. The statistics which follow represent a compilation of reports and statements from many sources. All such estimates are mainly based on guesses rather than official reports, and mine is simply the best summary that I can make from the information in my hands. I do not mean to defend or explain the individual figures; space would forbid this, but I do not wish to be understood to claim for these estimates any official sanction, that is, as a whole; many are official.

In the first months, the Allies and the Central Powers each put into the field armies aggregating in numbers 4,500,000. On the Allied side the quota of the several states was France, 2,000,000; Russia, 2,000,000; Serbia, 250,000; Great Britain, 150,000; Belgium, 100,000. Of the field force of the Central Powers, Germany supplied 3,000,000; Austria, 1,500,000. The entrance of Italy toward the end of the first year raised the total of the field forces of the Allies, but the Teutonic powers have not increased the actual total of their field armies materially, nor have the original Allies. The first figures represent approximately the force that the contestants can maintain in the field.

To make good losses, and in the case of the British alone, to increase the field armies above the first strength, the Allies have sent into the field 5,500,000 and Italy has brought 850,000, making a total contribution of 6,350,000. The Allied loss in this time has been 6,700,000, 5,600,000 of which was permanent and the balance temporary, representing the slightly wounded and the sick who have been able to rejoin. The Austro-German loss in the same period has been 6,350,000. Of these, 5,000,000 has been permanent and the Austro-Germans have contented themselves with sending to the front just sufficient troops to fill the gaps, that is 5,000,000. The total field forces of the Allies now are about 5,250,000 and of the Austro-Germans 4,500,000.

On the Allied side the losses up to the present time, permanent and temporary, have been as follows: Russians, 4,000,000; French, 2,000,000; British, 400,000; Italian, 100,000; Belgian, 100,000; Serbian, 100,000. This figure can be reduced by from a quarter to a fifth to discover the permanent losses. The huge number of Russian prisoners will increase the percentage of permanent losses of the Russians. In the same period the German losses have been 3,350,000 and the Austrian 3,050,000. A similar deduction will fix the permanent as compared with the temporary losses. But again regard must be paid the total of Austrian prisoners. I fix the Russian prisoners at considerably more than 2,000,000, the Austrian at rather less than 1,000,000.

At the present moment I estimate the Allied field armies to be as follows: Russian, 1,500,000; French, 2,000,000; British, 750,000; Italian, 750,000; Serbian, 150,000; Belgian, 100,000. The Austro-German, as has been said, remains at 4,500,000. In the West I estimate that there are about 1,500,000 Germans facing 2,000,000 French, 750,000 British and 100,000 Belgians. In the East I estimate that 1,500,000 Russians are facing 1,500,000 Germans and 1,000,000 Austrians. In the South I estimate that 500,-

000 Austrians are facing 750,000 Italians and 150,000 Serbians.

In these figures I have made no estimate of the Turks. The reason is this: In the British and French figures no regard has been paid to colonial and native troops. Some have actually been sent to Flanders and France, but in the same way some of the troops in the regular establishments have been sent to the Dardanelles. I believe some 350,000 British and French troops are operating about Gallipoli and that the Turkish force there does not exceed 150,000. The Allied loss exceeds 100,000, as does the Turkish, but by setting the colonial and native troops of France and Britain against the Turkish forces it is possible to disregard both for the purposes of the present calculation.

II. HOW LONG CAN IT LAST?

We have, then, the approximate rate of expenditure of life by both sides during the first year of the war. It remains to estimate the resources in lives of the several states to reach an approximation of the time when the supply of human lives will run short, if the expenditure continues for another year at the same rate.

What is the fraction of a total population which can be put into the field in war? Not more than one-tenth, most experts agree. This is above the percentage of the North in the Civil War and not far from that of the South, which actually put its last man in. Now on this basis Germany was able to put in the field 6,700,000; France, 4,000,000; Austria-Hungary, 5,000,000.

In the case of Britain and Russia, we have to consider two different situations. Russia had available by the rule of one-tenth not less than 17,000,000, but such a horde is beyond all the possibilities of equipping genius. On the other hand, it supplies a reserve that can be drawn on annually for just the amount that can be equipped. Last year the draft was 3,000,000. Roughly speaking we may expect that as long as Russia stays in the war she can furnish 3,000,000 new troops to meet losses each year.

England, on the other hand, does not have conscription and did not have a huge standing army or a trained national reserve. But by enlistment she raised 3,000,000 in a year, while her losses about balanced her trained forces at the outset. Plainly England can never again supply 3,000,000 in a year. By the law of one-tenth she still has about a million men available, but there is grave doubt

whether they can largely be brought in without conscription.

We have already shown the present strength of the field forces of each contestant. Behind them there stand in the case of the Allies the following reserves now mobilized: England, 2,500,000; France, 500,000 remaining from the first levy of 4,000,000, and 400,000, the new class of 1917 just called up, or 900,000 in all. Italy, having called but 850,000 and lost but 100,000, has theoretically the difference between her resources under the law of one-tenth and this amount, or 3,500,000 less 850,000. But no one believes Italy is financially able to equip such masses, and 500,000 is perhaps a fair estimate of her contribution for 1916.

All told, then, the Allies can count on reserves of 7,000,000 during the coming year. As their permanent losses last year were 5,250,000 and their field armies to-day amount to the same total, a similar loss for this year would leave them with 7,000,000 standing, either in the field or immediately available.

Now consider the case of the Teutonic allies. They had under the law of one-tenth a little less than 12,000,000 available in August, 1914. They have lost finally 5,000,000. They have 4,500,000 in the field. This leaves a balance of 2,500,000, which will be increased by 1,200,000, when the contingent of conscripts for 1917 takes the field. But if their loss this year is equal to last year's, it will be 5,000,000 and on August 1, 1916, they will have but 3,200,000 to face 7,000,000 of the Allies. The lines in the West cannot be held, at their present extension, by less than 1,500,000, and Italy and Serbia will require at least 500,000 more for safe defense. This leaves only 1,200,000 to face the Russians.

Assuming that Germany can still hold her lines up to August 1, then what will be the situation as to fresh lives? France can only supply an annual contingent of 400,000, England 400,000, and Italy 350,000 plus anything she chooses, since only a small fraction of her total man-power available has been used. The Teutonic allies can furnish an annual contingent of 1,200,000. But there remains Russia with the capacity to put 3,000,000 a year in for a number of years still.

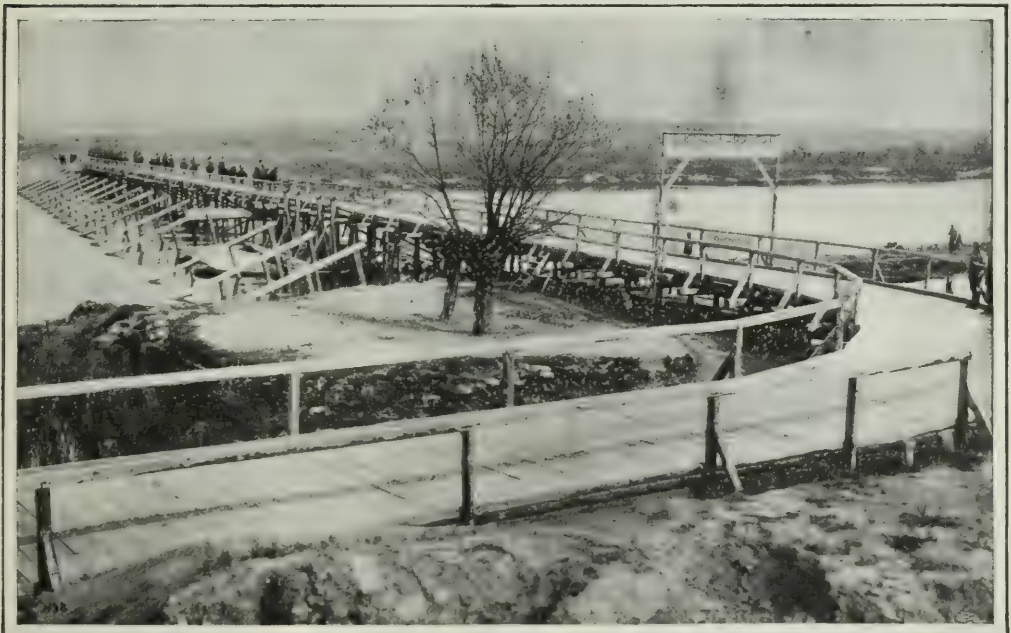
This is the whole story of attrition as the Allies see it. They believe, on the statistics that are available, that some time next spring the time will come when Germany cannot keep her field force up to its present strength



Photograph by Paul Thompson

PONTOON BRIDGE USED IN THE TAKING OF WARSAW, THE CAPITOL OF POLAND, BY THE GERMANS

(The new war-bridge near Wyszogrod at the river Vistula, which has a length of 1200 meters and was built by three companies of German pioneers during three days)



© Universal Press Syndicate

AN AUSTRIAN WAR BRIDGE

(The building and destroying of bridges have figured largely in the operations on both fronts)

of 4,500,000. They believe that at the present rate of expenditure it will fall rapidly until by August 1 it will be around 3,200,000. The Allied strength, on the contrary, will rise to 7,000,000, and will have behind it on August 1 great Russian and considerable Italian reserves, while the Germans and Austrians, like the French and British, will have only their annual increment to add to their field forces.

Before the winter of 1916 they believe the Germans will have to contract their lines, because their numbers are too small to hold the vast extent on the East and on the West. But until August 1, the Allies expect little change in the actual lines of battle and no considerable Allied success save about Constantinople.

III. PEACE TALK

With the statistics in mind it is simple to understand why the Central Powers, great as have been their victories, should be ready to welcome peace. It was always certain that they would ultimately be outnumbered unless they disposed of one nation separately. They tried in the case of France and failed. They then tried in the case of Russia, and there is no present reason to doubt their failure. They won great victories and they suffered tremendous losses.

But while France and Russia were suffering equally, even more heavily, Great Britain and Italy brought fresh masses up, suffering only inconsiderable losses. Russia, because of her huge population, equal to that of the Central Powers combined, could meet her losses and still provide relatively unlimited numbers, numbers measured only by her capacity to equip them. The net effect of this would be that Austria and Germany, victorious but weary, would be set upon by wholly fresh nations, while one of their exhausted foes would have time to rest.

Now, if any of the Allies got tired and quit, German victory was and perhaps is assured. If she could get a decision over one foe and drive him to quit, she could hope to win. But otherwise the question of arithmetic, whether you accept the figures shown above or any others based on the facts, was bound to become more and more pressing. All the genius of Napoleon in his greatest campaign, that of 1814, could not prevail against numbers. This was the German situation.

Therefore, at the crest of the Russian success, when Warsaw had fallen and the Rus-

sian escape was not yet assured, the visit of Cardinal Gibbons to President Wilson set in motion a vast gossip about peace, and out of the gossip there came presently the mention of pretty definite terms. They were the German maximum, but they were intensely interesting.

In sum, Germany was to evacuate Belgium and France, for an indemnity; get back her colonies; acquire the Courland and Lithuania; Poland was to be erected into a kingdom under joint Austro-German protection and to include all of Russian, a bit of German, and most of Austrian Polish territory. Sweden was to receive Finland, Rumania Bessarabia, and Austrian hegemony in the Balkans was to be conceded. This meant that Austria would annex Serbia and Montenegro and occupy Albania.

By these terms Germany indicated her recognition that Belgium could not be held and that the one chance of turning her conquest to profit was that she could use that and the portion of France she held to get back the costs of the war from France and England. By giving Sweden and Rumania Russian territory she would bind them permanently to herself, since they would thereafter fear Russian hostility. Poland would become an enormously valuable buffer state, with an army that could be used against Russia and the Pan-Slav menace would be removed by the breaking up of the Slavs.

So far the terms were merely protective against Russia. Germany was insuring herself against the day of real Russian peril by putting new barriers between herself and the Muscovite; she was also enlisting permanent allies against the Czar. The Balkan proposal opened an utterly different question, disclosed the true direction of German ambitions. I shall discuss this in a moment; it remains now to dispose of the subject of peace terms.

There was no mistaking the reception of the German peace terms in all the Allied capitals. President Wilson learned promptly that to offer mediation would be to arouse resentment, and wisely desisted. The whole discussion promptly dropped out of sight because it was clear that there was no readiness to treat among the opponents of the Central Powers.

The reason was simple. No one questioned the extent of the success Germany had won in the field. It was agreed that any terms based upon the results so far achieved would be to yield to Germany the undisputed supremacy on the continent and the future



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AN AUSTRIAN WAGON COLUMN IN THE WAKE OF THE ADVANCING ARMIES

(The line of wagons stretches up and over the hill, disappearing from view. The illustration is a fitting reminder of the enormity of the task of feeding the huge armies engaged in the present war and of furnishing them with munitions and other supplies. At the left of the picture may be seen a linesman repairing the telegraph wires destroyed by the retreating Russians)



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AUSTRIAN UHLANS AND ARTILLERY IN THE STREETS OF PRZEMSYL

(The civilian population is in gala attire to welcome the soldiers who have recaptured the city from the Russians. The shops, however, are still closed after months of enemy occupation. As is their custom, the troops have decorated their artillery wagons with branches and leaves, to commemorate their victory)

domination of the eastern Mediterranean. Thanks to prospective indemnities, she alone would emerge from the war without having incurred a staggering debt. She had destroyed the industrial machinery of France and Belgium, and of Poland, while hers was undisturbed, and she would be ready on the first day of peace to begin an industrial campaign in the markets of the world.

But at the end of another year? Allied statesmen believed that the statistics showed German defeat inevitable. This is what Kitchener meant when he told the British Parliament that Germany "had about shot her bolt." He was relying upon the strategy of Grant, the policy that ultimately destroyed the Confederacy, not by victories in the field, primarily, but by butchery, by systematic killing, until numbers failed the side weaker in numbers.

IV. CONSTANTINOPLE, THE REAL PRIZE

German demand that the treaty of peace should make Austria the suzerain of the Balkans called final attention to the real importance of the battle going on at the Dardanelles. Serbia, Montenegro, and Albania annexed, Rumania bound to the Central Powers by the gift of Russian Bessarabia, Bulgaria and Greece, both with Teutonic parties supreme at their courts, would sink to the estate of mere protectorates. Turkey was already an ally, with her military department in German control and her future hopeless unless Germany could save her from Russia and the Mediterranean powers.

A treaty of peace perpetuating this situation would make Turkey-in-Asia but a German colony and Germany could send her troops to the very edge of Suez by the Mecca Railroad, threatening British Egypt, and she could also send more troops by the Bagdad Railroad, following the route of Alexander the Great to the Euphrates and thence against India. Sea power would cease to menace German expansion and Germany could strike at the very heart of the colonial empire of her great rival, while she would remain beyond the reach of Britain.

Railroad connection from Berlin to Bagdad, from the Spree to the Euphrates, would make one central empire, into which would be merged not alone Turkey and the Balkan states, but Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and the new Poland. Belgium might for the moment escape and France go undiminished. But would Belgium and France again ven-

ture to resist the new Central Empire, when it turned west to take Holland and North Belgium, thus completing the work of "rounding out the Greater Germany," so much in the eyes and heart of Pan-Germans? Or would France acquiesce, possibly receiving immunity, a guarantee of integrity and a morsel of Walloon Belgium?

As to Italy, could she hope to take Trieste away from such a Central Empire? Could she hope to hold it, even if she won it temporarily during the war? It should be noted that German peace proposals made no advance to Italy of any sort. With Germany in Dalmatia, in Albania, the control of the Adriatic would pass from Italy to the Central Empire and Italy would have to choose between becoming, like France, a German servant and a struggle that could have but one end.

The key of this whole grandiose German conception was Constantinople. If it once fell into Allied hands, then there was an end of the German dream. Under Allied patronage the Balkans would be reorganized. The Balkan states would be at the mercy of the sea powers and the nation that held the straits. They would have to turn their backs on all German proposals.

On the other hand, Allied purposes would be best served by the development of strong Balkan states, which could offer a permanent barrier to the expansion south of the Danube by the Central Empires. Such expansion would ultimately prove fatal to the liberties of all the Balkan states. Only Bulgarian bitterness at her old allies and the rival claims to Macedonia prevented a recognition of this fact at once and joint action. Once the Allies held Byzantium, they could reconstruct the Balkan states and the German dream would end.

In France, Germany had come to a standstill; her campaign had developed into a permanent deadlock, with numbers ever turning against her. Her victories in Russia had fallen short of eliminating the Czar's forces, but she was now able to dispose of a considerable force, which might be sent south to hack its way through Serbia, and, through Bulgaria, plainly dallying with Berlin, reach Constantinople. She might arrive before the Straits had been forced, and if she did, she would then be able to turn to her own uses the huge masses of Turks, who could not be equipped or trained because of lack of arms and munitions.

Such a campaign might easily bind Bulgaria, with its Coburg Prince and its burn-



Photograph American Press Association, New York

CAPTURED TURKISH FORT NO. 1 AT CAPE HELLES, DARDANELLES. SHOWING GUNS 1 AND 2 WHICH WERE UNDAMAGED



Photograph American Press Association, New York

BRITISH "TOMMIES" RESTING IN SHELTERS THAT WERE USED THE DAY BEFORE BY THE TURKS AT THE DARDANELLES

ing grudges, to Berlin and enlist the strong Bulgarian army. It would neutralize Greece, with a German Queen and a Germanophile King. Greece, still at the mercy of the Allied navies, might not enlist, but she certainly would send Venizelos packing and end all thoughts of taking the Allied shilling. Serbia would be eliminated, Albania would furnish a new recruiting ground. Finally Rumania could hardly resist the double pressure and promise, and would come in. Germany might thus enlist new armies to restore the balance of numbers.

Such were the considerations which fixed all attention on the Dardanelles campaign and gave to Constantinople the center of the stage of a world war, once more.

V. GALLIPOLI OPERATIONS

These political facts that have been cited gave to the operations about Gallipoli an importance unequalled by any other incident during the month. In this time there was no considerable triumph of the Anglo-French forces, but there was the successful landing of very large reinforcements at Suvla Bay and a terrific battle along the slopes of the hill of Sari Bahr, the backbone of the Gallipoli Peninsula.

At one time during the engagement the British actually held this hill, which commands both the roads leading to the Turkish forts at the Dardanelles Narrows and the Straits themselves. Could the position have been held, the end was in sight. But the Turks retook it. A British division went astray; the force on the hill was too small to face the tremendous Turkish onslaught.

For the second time the British saw success slip from their hands. In the early days of May, when they made their first landing, their advance had been compelled to halt with Atchi Baba within their grasp because ammunition failed. Now they had lost Sari Bahr, after having occupied it.

But not all the ground first gained was now lost. On a long front from Gaba Tepe to Suvla, the British were now able to extend their trenches along the face of Sari Bahr and dig themselves in on a broad front. How desperate the fighting had been was disclosed by official British figures, showing the total loss of the British contingent in the whole Gallipoli operation to be 88,000. With the French casualties the total must pass 100,000. The Turkish loss has not been less.

It is impossible not to admire the splendid

fight the Turks have been making at the Straits. The contrast between the fight here and the panic and flight at Kumanovo, Kirk Kilisse, and Lule Burgas not alone vindicates the ancient Turkish reputation, but earns applause for the German officers, who have trained their Turkish pupils and restored the organization destroyed in the Balkan War.

Yet, to judge from all the reports flowing in from the various news sources, the Turks have begun to feel the strain of the terrible fighting and their resources are beginning to prove inadequate to the task before them, while Allied armies continue to swell in numbers and in supplies of ammunition. Athens, Sofia, and even Constantinople, by the devious and indirect channels that supply information, have begun to report anxiety and a decline in confidence. Ottoman banks are reported to have begun to transfer their funds to Asia. More convincing is the public announcement of Enver Pasha that a huge German army is soon to come to the relief of its Ally. Such an announcement could only be made to revive spirits drooping under the slowly worsening prospects of the Turkish forces.

There has been a persistent report that Italian troops were on their way to Gallipoli, but none have yet been reported as having landed. Such an expedition is to be expected, for Italy cannot employ all her available forces on her own narrow battlefield, and she naturally desires to win a right to share in the division of the skin of the Turkish lion. British reinforcements continue to arrive. The French army has been raised to 80,000 and is commanded now by General Sarraill, the man who saved Verdun in August and September, 1914.

Judged by all that can be gathered in the reports of recent days, there is reason to believe that the Turkish power for resistance is slowly but surely wearing out, while there is no mistaking the rapid increase in the numbers and artillery strength of the assailants. A German advance through Serbia, which has as yet been foreshadowed by no concentration of troops, could hardly be successful in less than a month or six weeks. Possibly, then, within that time we shall see a decisive engagement on the Gallipoli peninsula. At least there are many signs pointing in this direction.

Once more it is worth while to emphasize the importance of the Constantinople campaign. A victory for the Allies now will change the whole geography and history of the East. It will end the German dream

of a "place in the sun." It will fortify the colonial empires of the Mediterranean powers, and it will thus be the first considerable German defeat since the Marne, a defeat which will cost the Central Powers most of all that they have hoped to gain by the present war.

Conversely, successful Turkish defense and the arrival of German reinforcements may enlist the Balkan states, save for Serbia, which will be crushed, and Greece, which will be at the mercy of the sea powers. Thus by acquiring new numbers the Central Powers may postpone the success of the Allied policy of victory by attrition.

VI. THE RUSSIAN GRAND DUKE GOES

Nothing in the whole month on any front created so much comment as the action of the Czar in superseding the Grand Duke Nicholas as commander-in-chief and sending him to the Causasus. What did it mean? The fact is that the explanation remains still to seek.

At the outset the Allied capitals naturally feared that this step foreshadowed a lessening of Russian effort. But the Czar formally pledged himself to his Allies and to his people to continue the war until Russian soil was freed. It was plain, too, that dynastic reasons compelled such a course, for there was no mistaking the fact, conceded frankly by German observers, that the war had become a national war, both for racial and religious reasons supported by the masses of Russian people.

Equally plain was Allied apprehension lest the going of the Grand Duke should mean the lessening of Russian skill and the rapid disintegration of Russian armies. It was assumed that the retirement of the Grand Duke was due to a court intrigue. Popular with the army, the Grand Duke had been unpopular with the ruling class. His strictness as a disciplinarian, his stern rule, had roused hatred and opposition.

His military skill was everywhere conceded outside of Russia. His early campaigns had been remarkably successful. He had conquered Galicia and Bukovina. German critics suggested that his final effort in the Carpathians had been badly advised, that he had wasted the flower of the Russian army and exhausted his resources in ammunition in a hopeless effort to break this barrier. Yet the world believed that his ultimate defeat had been due to the collapse behind him of

the officials charged with organizing the machinery for the supplying of the army. His men had fought with clubs against the artillery of Krupp and Skoda, in the last days of the retreat. What wonder they had been driven?

Despite all handicaps, too, he had saved his armies. The disaster along the Dunajec was promptly repaired. The great losses in the long retreat were in the first days of May. From that time on the Russians had plainly given as good as they got. The stand at the San had saved the Galician army. The long resistance at the Lublin line had permitted the evacuation of the Warsaw salient. Only at Novo-Georgievsk had a large number of Russians surrendered in a body and this fortress had been held, as was Maubeuge in France a year before, to interrupt the communications of the invader, to prevent as long as possible the use of the Vistula for transport.

After the retreat from Warsaw the fall of Brest-Litovsk had been determined by that of Kovno. There was no rout and there was no flight. Every evacuation was accomplished in perfect order and behind the Russians there was left the same blackened waste that met the eyes of Napoleon a century before. Only at Kovno and Novo-Georgievsk were there any considerable losses of artillery. But the Russians were still lacking in ammunition. They could not hold the ground they defended because when the Austro-German artillery arrived, they were without means to reply to it.

Russian armies were now, also, hopelessly outnumbered. Not less than 1,500,000 Germans and 1,000,000 Austrians were attacking a Russian host of not more than 1,500,000, all that was left of 5,000,000 men, who had been mobilized and sent into action since the war began. Behind this million and a half, there were many millions available, but lacking arms. Time was necessary to prepare them and until this time was allowed the Russians had no choice but to avoid a decisive engagement, to escape a Sedan or an Austerlitz. And under the Grand Duke they had done it from May to September.

But the Grand Duke had failed to bring home the great triumph, he had saved armies, but he had not been able to save provinces. From May to September his record had been one of defeat, whatever the explanations it was plain that a change would have a moral effect in the nation, an effect heightened by the appearance of the Czar in the field as other Czars had appeared in the past and



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ONE OF THE GREAT AUSTRIAN SIEGE GUNS

(The outside world has heard much—particularly rumors—regarding the German 42 centimeter [16.5 inch] guns manufactured by the Krupps. Mention of Austria's heavy guns has not been so frequent. It is freely stated, however, that the efficiency of the Austrian 30.5 centimeter [12 inch] gun, shown above, is greater than the larger Krupp piece. The cylinders attached to the gun proper "take up" the shock and do away with most of the recoil. The man on his knee is ready to pull the string which discharges the gun, and other men are ready to insert the next shell.)



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A PRZEMYSL FORT AFTER THE SECOND BOMBARDMENT

(The Teutonic armies used both Austrian and German siege guns in great numbers to reduce the forts surrounding Przemyśl. The legends on official German photographs arriving in the United States do not neglect to call attention to the fact that Teutonic artillery compelled the evacuation of Przemyśl in a very few days, whereas the earlier Russian victory had required as many months. The two pictures on this page were made by Albert K. Dawson, an American photographer and war correspondent.)



Photograph by International News Service, New York

GERMAN TROOPS PASSING THROUGH DOBROZIN, A SMALL TOWN IN POLAND
(The Russians destroyed the town completely with the exception of the church)

coming had brought victory with them.

The going of the Grand Duke does not mean that Russia is about to quit the field; this is certain. It does not seem to mean any immediate change in tactics or strategy, because the armies are still retiring along most of the line. It does not seem to mean any immediate danger of Russian disaster, because his work appears to have been complete before he was relieved and the Russian armies safely extricated from the net of Hindenburg and Mackensen. Whether or not it means ultimate disaster incident to corrupt and incompetent political generals cannot be forecast. It may be recalled that Kuropatkin left under like circumstances in Manchuria and all forecasts of disaster proved inaccurate.

VII. A SLACKENING CAMPAIGN IN THE EAST

September saw the slackening of the Austro-German campaign in the East. Along the Dvina from Riga to Dvinsk General Russky, the conqueror of Galicia, held the Hindenburg armies in full check. West and south of Dvinsk the Germans crossed the Petrograd-Wilna railway and closed in upon the city of Vilna, which fell on September 19.

Still further to the south, the armies which had occupied Brest-Litovsk were able to pass

the Pripet Marshes and take Pinsk, while still farther to the south the northern half of the armies operating with Galicia as a base broke down the Rovno-Lutsky-Dubno triangle, but made no considerable additional progress and were presently brought to a full stop by an unexpected Russian success.

In the small corner of Galicia still held by the Russians west of Tarnopol in the third week of September and soon after the Czar took command of his armies the Russians won a series of triumphs over the Austrians and pushed them back from the Sereth to the Stripa rivers, capturing some 40,000 prisoners and making progress that was grudgingly admitted by official Austrian bulletins. But Russian bulletins forbade attaching too much importance to the successes.

In sum on both flanks of the Russian front the Germans and Austrians were held with considerable success. Riga did not fall as was expected; the line of the Dvina was not forced and there seemed to be a small basis for Russian hope that it would not fall. Russian superiority over Austrian troops was again shown on the other flank where the first considerable Slav success since the early fighting in the Lublin gap was achieved. In the center from Vilna to the Pripet marshes the German advance continued and the Russian line bulged in materially. Here, if any-

where, there remained a possibility of great German success.

But there was nothing to suggest there was longer any chance that a decision could be had in the East. The escape of the Russian armies, which seemed certain a month ago, was confirmed. German bulletins paid generous tribute to the stubbornness of Russian resistance and there was strong reason for believing that the supply of ammunition was proving more nearly sufficient. Meantime it was plain that the Russians were still determined to adhere to their former tactics and risk nothing on a pitched battle fought to a finish. They were still meeting Hindenburg and Mackensen with the tactics that had cost Napoleon the best of his troops at Borodino and the strategy which encompassed his ruin in the retreat from Moscow.

Conditions had so completely changed; the coming of railways and motor transport had so transformed the question of supply, that there was little reason to expect another catastrophe. Yet there was no mistaking the fact that Germany and Austria were finding it increasingly difficult to supply and munition their armies now far from their bases and there was more than a suggestion that the limit of invasion was rapidly approaching.

Already the weather was beginning to change. The country about the Galician front was being transformed into a morass

by the first autumnal rains. The regions east of Brest-Litovsk were a swamp at all times and were sure to become practically impassable when the rains began in earnest. At best but two or three weeks more remained to complete the campaign. Unless it were completed a period of some months would have to pass before winter froze up the marshes, and these months would give Russia the first breathing spell since the Battle of the Carpathians opened in March.

All things considered it seemed reasonable to suppose that by the end of October, at the latest, the great Eastern campaign would have been completed. By this time Riga might have fallen and the German line pushed forward to Minsk and solidly held behind the Dvina and the great marshes. To the south it was possible that a new drive might then be directed upon Odessa, over country better suited to operations. Bessarabia might be occupied with correspondingly favorable effect upon Rumania. But despite the enormous successes of the six months' campaign, all the evidence still pointed toward its failure in the main object, the elimination of Russia. Poland, Courland, and Lithuania had been conquered, Galicia and Bukovina regained; there was no longer any peril to East Prussia, but Russia was still in the field and by no means an insignificant foe, as the latest Galician victories proved.



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TEN THOUSAND RUSSIAN PRISONERS, IN ONE COLUMN

(Notice the line along the road in the distance. All these prisoners were captured in one of the battles in Galicia)

GERMANY'S DOWNFALL AS A COLONIAL POWER

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON

WHILE our eyes have been fixed on the tremendous dramas of Flanders, Warsaw, the Argonne, Gallipoli, we have lost sight, perhaps, of the momentous changes that have taken place in Asia, in Africa, in Polynesia. While a few hundred feet of trenches have been the reward of months of heroic fighting on the battlefields of France, enormous areas elsewhere have changed hands; in Africa, territories equal to the combined areas of France and Germany; in Asia and Polynesia, areas larger than the British Isles. And the loss and gain of these vast regions is likely to be permanent, deciding the history of Asia, Africa, and the Pacific for generations to come. It is notable that just a century ago, Britain gained an enormous colonial area, acquiring from Holland, then under the dominion of Napoleonic France, a chain of colonies stretching round the globe, of which the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, and British Guiana were the most important. The changes in colonial empire created by that world-war have already made a century of momentous history.

A year ago, Germany's colonial empire contained something over a million square miles in Africa: an area roughly equal to the United States east of the Mississippi River; with about a hundred thousand square miles in the Pacific, made up of German New Guinea—Kaiser Wilhelm Land—with the Bismarck Archipelago along its shores, and an enormous number of smaller islands, contained in the Solomon, Caroline, Marshall, and Samoan groups. This German colonial empire was just thirty years old, its foundations having been laid by Bismarck in 1884, as the second part of his great life-work, while about a hundred thousand square miles in the Cameroon country in West Africa were conceded to Germany by France in 1911, in negotiations which cast a permanent shadow on the patriotism and honor of a group of French politicians with M. Caillaux at their head.

The great war broke out, as we know, at

the beginning of August, 1914. The earliest reaction on the colonial possessions of the aggressor took place half way round the world. On August 10, Australian warships entered Simpsonshafen, the harbor of the administrative capital of German New Guinea. They began by sweeping the harbor for mines. "Everything looked peaceful beneath the tropical heat," says an eye-witness; "of any alarms and excursions of war there was not a suspicion; not a shot had been fired, nor had a single German soldier been seen, when the flag was hauled down by the German Governor." After the capitulation of Rabaul, the capital of German New Guinea, the Australian warships steamed for Noumea, the capital of New Caledonia, to pick up the New Zealand transports. This done, they steamed back again for German New Guinea. "One may judge of the surprise which awaited them," says the same recorder, "when in place of the Commonwealth flag that had been run up on the flag-post after the eagle had peacefully come down from its perch, there, large as life, was the German eagle, and the red, white, and black flapping defiantly in the breeze. After the event the explanation is easy enough. It appears that when the Australian ships were sighted in the first instance, the German soldiers were hurried off and concealed on merchant vessels that lay in the harbor and later the commands of the enemy were obeyed without a murmur. But no sooner had the unwelcome visitors departed than up went the eagle, the soldiers came ashore, trenches were dug, mines were laid, and everything was put in a state of war." We shall see, presently, what thereupon took place.

Meanwhile, half way round the world, on the Gulf of Guinea, the huge indent into the west coast of Africa, on August 26, a combined French and British force brought to a successful conclusion warlike operations in Togoland, a Germany colony wedged in between British Ashanti and French Dahomey, and here also the German flag was lowered. It is interesting to remember that both Gen-

eral Joffre and General Gallieni—the gallant war-governor of Paris—have seen service in this region of Africa, Gallieni, as the elder man, first cutting a track through the jungle, while Joffre later built a military railroad along it. Togoland, though only a minor colony, is equal in area to Ireland, or to the territory now occupied by German armies on the western front.

The German fleet was still a power on the ocean, and a double blow was dealt it three days later, on August 29, when British forces seized Apia in the Samoan islands, a German naval base, and a link in Germany's worldwide system of wireless telegraphy. This expedition to Samoa was a curiously composite force, being made up of New Zealand troops on the transports *Moeraki* and *Monowai*, Australians on the *Australia* and *Melbourne*, and Frenchmen on the *Montcalm*, picked up by the others at Noumea in New Caledonia. Noumea had been living in expectation of bombardment by the German fleet from Samoa, and the joint expedition, proceeding to Samoa, was in full expectation of a hard-fought naval combat, but not a shot was fired. The German fleet had disappeared and once more the red, white, and black gave place to the British flag. The flag of the Australian Commonwealth, which, as we saw, was raised over Kaiser Wilhelm Land, is a British Union Jack with the stars of the Southern Cross added, a very beautiful banner.

That brings us to the end of August, 1914, in which month also—three days before the capture of German Togoland,—the Japanese bombarded Tsingtau, Germany's leased area in China. September was a momentous month in the history of Africa and Polynesia, both because of the large areas which changed hands, and because the victorious forces were not those of England, but those of the British dominions beyond the sea: the Union of South Africa, the Commonwealth of Australia, and the Dominion of New Zealand, these dominions having well-equipped armies and military policies of their own. September, 1914, therefore, marks a new epoch in imperial history, in the history of the world.

New Guinea, the first approach to which, by Australian forces, has already been described, had, since 1884, been divided into three nearly equal areas, belonging to Holland, England, and Germany, Holland holding the western end of the island, Germany the northeastern, and England the southeastern region. But the area which we have

just described as English had been transferred to Australia by the New Guinea Act of 1887, and, after the formation of the Commonwealth of Australia, at the beginning of this century, the transfer was confirmed, British New Guinea becoming, in 1906, "the Territory of Papua," under the Australian Federal Government. And for three-quarters of a century Australia had desired to add to her territories what, a year ago, was German New Guinea; her efforts to accomplish this had thrice failed, in 1847, in 1873, and in 1883, when the Queensland Government strongly urged Great Britain to annex the then unclaimed northeastern third of the island. A few months later, Bismarck took advantage of England's slackness and gathered the huge region, of seventy thousand square miles into his new German colonial empire, adding the archipelago on the coast, with his own name given to it.

We have seen that, before England had been in the present war a week, Australia had raised her flag over Kaiser Wilhelm Land, but that, as soon as her ships sailed away to Noumea, the German Governor, shall we say, re-annexed this territory for his Kaiser. In the second week of September, the Australian fleet, with additional forces from New Zealand, returned, and, to their astonishment saw, instead of the Union Jack with the four stars, the black, white, and red flag of Germany. What thereupon took place is sufficiently indicated by a wireless message from Rear-Admiral Sir George Patey to Mr. E. D. Millen, the Australian Minister of Defense, on Monday, September 14: "As a result of the operations of the Australian Expeditionary Force, Rabaul, the seat of government in German New Guinea, has been occupied. The British flag was hoisted over the town at half-past three on Sunday afternoon, and was saluted." A proclamation was then read by Rear-Admiral Patey formally setting out the occupation.

The quaintest comment on this bit of world-history is a cartoon in the Sydney *Bulletin*: a kangaroo kicking a dachshund over a picket fence. With the capture of Rabaul and Herbertshohe, the Australian force acquired another great German wireless station. A further result was the elision of the names of Kaiser Wilhelm and Bismarck from the map of Polynesia, and the restoration of the older designations of New Britain and New Ireland to the islands which, since 1884, had borne the names of Neu Pommern and Neu Mecklenburg.

BOTHA INVADES GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA

The British flag was hoisted over Rabaul on August 13, three days after General Joffre sent his famous message of congratulation to General Maunory, on the decisive victory of the Marne. A fortnight later, on September 27, another of the British overseas dominions entered on a war of conquest, no less than eight thousand miles west of New Guinea: General Louis Botha, Premier and head of the army of the Union of South Africa, began the invasion of German Southwest Africa. This immense area, half as large again as Germany, runs north along the Atlantic from the north of Cape Colony to Portuguese Angola. A large part of its area of 322,000 square miles is 5000 feet above sea level, with peaks two or three thousand feet higher. It is, therefore, comparatively cool, and well adapted for white colonization, cattle and sheep grazing uniting with diamond mining to complete its resemblance to the Orange Free State and the Transvaal.

General Botha, as head of the forces of the South African Union, began his invasion from two points on the coast: from Walfisch or Whale Bay on the north, and the harbor which, for centuries had borne the Portuguese title of Angra Pequena, or Little Bay, but which the Germans had recently renamed, perhaps less euphoniously, Lüderitzbucht, in honor of one of their merchant pioneers, Herr Lüderitz. By January 14, the northern force had linked Whale Bay with Swakopmund, at the mouth of the Swakop river, by a military supply railroad, and, starting from this base, General Botha's forces began to work their way up into the hill country to the east, towards Windhoek, the German capital of the colony. This force went through sharp fighting, first at Tretskopje, a small settlement fifty miles to the north-east of Swakopmund, and again at Otjimbingwe on the Swakop River, sixty miles north-west of Windhoek. Meanwhile the southern force, moving northward and eastward from Angra Pequena, and rounding Karas mountain, along the line of the railroad from Lüderitzbucht through Seeheim



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GENERAL BOTHA AT THE SURRENDER OF GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA

(The surrender was signed by Governor Seitz in the tent)

to Keetmanshoop, made a junction with the northern force. General Smuts, in command of this force, thereafter operated in direct touch with General Botha, whose forces finally took possession of Windhoek on May 12, taking prisoner 3000 Europeans and four times as many natives. The wireless station which, with only one relay, was able to communicate with Berlin, was captured intact, and much rolling-stock also fell into General Botha's hands.

The final surrender was preceded by a truce, concerning which a Boer witness relates an incident which gives a very graphic picture of General Botha. "Botha," says this Boer, an officer on the general's staff, "was confronted, on his arrival at the meeting-place, by the Civil Governor of the territory, who occupied a deck chair, and Major Francke, commander of the German forces, who stood behind him. The Governor rose with a courteous smile to greet his distinguished guest. After an exchange of compliments General Botha offered his hand to his enemy. Francke, with a contemptuous shrug of his shoulders, folded his arms and turned his back on General Botha, who, smothering his annoyance at the insult, asked briefly why an armistice had been called. Francke answered in broken English, speaking rapidly in a passionate manner. At times his voice almost rose to a shout. Trembling with his scorn for the conqueror, he spoke of the 'Burgher rabble,' and spat out the terms he asked for as though he were offering them

to an offended but forgiven servant. "There are no terms," said Botha quietly, when he had finished. "Understand," he went on, "from now on I will listen to no talk of terms whatsoever. I demand unconditional surrender." He then spoke of the poisoning of wells, and warned the German that he would hold him personally responsible for every such crime against The Hague Convention. "I will finish my talk when your people choose to send a soldier," replied Francke. "I have done with you." With that he turned and hurriedly left the place. As he walked away Botha pointed with his forefinger. "I'll be even with you yet," he said, "I'll see you don't poison many more wells!" Major Francke's assumption of military superiority to a soldier so eminent as General Botha was, to say the least, amusing.

On July 9, Lord Buxton, Governor-General of the Union of South Africa, communicated to Mr. Bonar Law, Secretary of State for the Colonies, the news that, that morning at 2 A.M., General Botha had accepted from Governor Seitz the surrender of all the German forces in Southwest Africa, and Mr. Asquith, the Premier, speaking in the House of Commons on July 13, announced that "the German dominion of Southwest Africa had ceased to exist," and asked the Commons to testify to the admiration of the whole Empire and "its gratitude to the illustrious general who had rendered such an inestimable service to the Empire."

To go back for a moment to the vast ocean spaces of Polynesia. Japan, which, on November 7, had brought about the fall of Tsingtau, had captured the German colony of the Caroline Islands, which lie due east of Mindanao in the Philippines, and, on November 18, had handed them over to the forces of New Zealand. The transfer was marked by the substitution of New Zealand bank-notes and specie for German currency in the Islands, which must thus be added to our new category of "the colonies of a colony,"—though it is no longer quite correct to speak of the oversea dominions as colonies. On December 9, Australian forces took over the Solomon Islands, the Marshall Islands, with a powerful wireless station, completing the collection. In passing, one should record a word of admiration for the thoroughness with which the Germans had adapted Marconi's wonderful invention to their colonial empire.

There remain two large German colonial areas yet to be accounted for: the Cameroon region, in the elbow of the Gulf of Guinea,

between the British territory of Nigeria and the French Congo,—a district, originally about two hundred thousand square miles in area, to which M. Caillaux and his associates in 1911 added over a hundred thousand square miles of French territory from the French Congo; and German East Africa, which stretches inland from opposite Zanzibar, and is bounded, in the interior, by the chain of great lakes, Victoria Nyanza, Tanganyika, and Nyassa. This territory is still larger than the Cameroon region, even after Caillaux had enlarged it with a territory half the size of France; it contains an area of 384,180 square miles.

THE CAMEROONS

Effective operations against the German colony of Kamerun began late, some time in the past spring. A forward movement of the British force is thus vividly described in the letter of a young British officer, printed in *The Times*: "I hope you will have heard ere this of our capture of Duala and Bonaberi and our further advance along the Duala Railway to Tusa, and along the Wari River to Jabassi. . . . At sundown, night before last, it was absolutely gorgeous with the purple mountain standing clear out against the orange and emerald sky and the dark gray shapes of our ships lying sombrely in the background, talking to each other in flashing Morse. The great mountain, Fernando Po, standing up out of the water to starboard, and the Peak of Cameroon wreathed in mist to port, Victoria invisible, as also Bula,—both hidden behind the clouds, as we passed disdainfully by, and entered the estuary of the Cameroon River." The expedition prospered so well that it was able to record the capture of the important post of Ngaundere, four hundred miles inland, on June 29; Molundu, in the German Congo territory, having been already occupied, on March 19, by a combined French and Belgian force, thus taking a step towards undoing the work of M. Caillaux.

Speaking on September 15, M. Gaston Doumergue, French Minister of the Colonies, declared that:

Remarkable results have been obtained by French colonial troops, aided by British allies, fighting continually along a front of more than two thousand miles in Africa since last September.

German East Africa, said M. Doumergue, will soon be the only colony possessed by Germany, with the exception of a small part of the Cameroons. The other German possessions are occupied either by the French or British, or conjointly.



BRITISH OPERATIONS IN GERMAN EAST AFRICA: EXPEDITIONARY FORCE RETURNING BY TRAIN, WITH GERMAN FLAGS AND TROPHIES

When one considers the difficulties of transportation in the interior of the Cameroons, not only of food, but of munitions and cannon, of our expeditionary columns, our success appears to be still more evident and meritorious.

A number of French columns marching from east to west and from south to north already have covered more than 600 kilometres (about 373 miles), and fighting continuously, have established junctions and thus surrounded the enemy on three sides, while Anglo-French columns are operating from the coast toward the interior and a blockade of the coast has been effected by British vessels.

The fighting in the colonies bears a great resemblance to that on the western front. Trenches, barbed-wire entanglements and blockhouse observation posts had been cleverly disposed and utilized by the Germans, who have shown here, as elsewhere, the greatest preparations for war. Our enemies had even sent to Africa some aeroplanes, which the Allies fortunately brought down as soon as they appeared.

The climate and the nature of the ground opposed great difficulties to the march of our troops, but fortunately they were overcome. I must in this respect refer to the excellent organization of our sanitary service, thanks to which our losses due to disease were greatly reduced.

CONQUEST OF GERMAN EAST AFRICA

In the great colony of German East Africa, almost equal to the combined areas of Germany and France, the fighting began at the end of September, 1914, by a German raid across the frontier into British East Africa, and an attempt to capture Mombasa, the capital of that territory and the starting-point of the Uganda Railroad. The Germans were beaten back into their own territory, their opponents being a small body of the King's African Rifles and Arabs from Zanzi-

bar; but this small force was presently strengthened by troops from India, both regulars and forces supplied by the Indian princes. India thus made her entry into the war, as Australia, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa had already done, and we shall find Indian troops fighting gallantly at several widely separated points in the war zone. In November the combined British forces made an attack on the German stations of Tanga and Jassin, the former an important seaport, joined by rail with Moshi among the foothills of Kilimanjaro, and, inland, there were vigorous attacks and counter-attacks by boat in Lake Victoria Nyanza. The fighting in this region, as in the Kamerun region on the other side of Africa, continues, and is likely to continue for some time to come. We may indicate its recent stages by recording that, on June 28, a telegram was sent by Lord Kitchener, as Secretary of War, to Major-General Tighe, in command of the troops in British East Africa, congratulating him on the success of his work.

It is, perhaps, too soon to sum up the results of the war as we have recorded its progress, in Africa, Asia, and Polynesia. But we may say that it appears very unlikely that the former German colonies now in the possession of the Union of South Africa and of Australia and New Zealand, will ever again fly the black, white, and red flag of Germany. Colonies which became British, in the world-war of a hundred years ago, are British still, and have in every way benefited by their incorporation in the Empire. As for Germany's remaining colony in Africa, Ger-

THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE, REFORMER

LESS than a year ago the post of Warden of Sing Sing Prison, in New York, was accepted by Mr. Thomas Mott Osborne, a distinguished citizen and noted advocate of prison reform. The public then was curious to know not only how far he would go toward putting his radical theories into practice, but also how the innovations would stand the test of trial.

Nine months have passed; and, while it is too soon to express opinions based upon permanent results, it is possible to state definitely two conclusions: First, that prison discipline has not been disorganized, and, second, that the men themselves have profited both physically and morally.

Mr. Osborne's interest in prisons is due in large part to the fact that his lifelong residence has been at Auburn, N. Y., where a State prison is a very prominent object. He first associated himself with the reformatory community known as the George Junior Republic, serving as president of its board of trustees for fifteen years, and during that time also became directly interested in individual prisoners at Sing Sing. A long period of active work for prison reform followed, and in 1913, in order to study the problem at first hand, he became a voluntary inmate of Auburn prison for one week.

At Auburn, Mr. Osborne had assisted materially in the formation of a Mutual Welfare League, composed of prisoners; and soon after he came to Sing Sing a similar organization was started there, superseding the Golden Rule Brotherhood. One of his first official acts was to invite the men to suggest changes in prison routine and discipline, most of their recommendations being immediately adopted.

The law itself set many limitations, and the physical condition of the buildings and grounds set others; but Mr. Osborne strove to do the best he could with the materials at hand.

The changes have thus, above all else, been in the nature of a more kindly attitude toward inmates upon the part of prison officials,—expressing itself in the granting of minor privileges and responsibilities.

It is true that some prisoners have abused



Photograph by Greeley Photo Service

HON. THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE

their privileges, and that escapes have occurred. The number of these is, however, below the average of former years. Recently fifteen inmates applied for and received permission to go in pursuit of a fugitive. They were out all night, and came back the next morning very proud of the trust shown in them. On another occasion the plans of two inmates to escape were frustrated by a member of the League.

The feeling of the inmates is well expressed in a recent bulletin of the League:

A few short months ago, Sing Sing was worse

than any hell conceived in the lurid brain of a fanatic; *physical* conditions have scarcely been remedied,—only dynamite, judiciously placed, can do that,—but, *morally*, the change has been astounding.

Over against this might be placed the letter from an inmate at Sing Sing to his "pal," found when he also got into the clutches of the law:

I guess you know I am up here serving a three-year bit. But why worry? It is much easier up here than you think. Baseball every day, and swimming the same. We can talk and yell all we want, and we can talk in the shop. Movies every night.

This man, however, had just begun his term. The real inmate would shrug his shoulders, and say: "Wait until he has been here longer."

Furthermore, when his term has come to an end, will not the prisoner have been so benefited, unconsciously, by this harmless and healthful recreation, that he will wish to avoid former haunts,—which, in his case and most others, were the saloon and the street-corner?

Those who believe that the new methods may make prison life a thing not to be feared and shunned, really miss the point. For, as Mr. Osborne has put it, the modern system will make the men desirous and capable

of leading an honest and useful life.

It has been a personal sacrifice to Mr. Osborne to carry on his work at Sing Sing. A wealthy man of high social and business standing, he has left his home and family to live,—as a Warden must,—in contact with his charges. His methods, furthermore, have aroused no little opposition. While some of this has been from people who sincerely doubt the wisdom of making prisons more attractive places of abode, it is no secret that much of the opposition has been political. Prison administration in New York has been notoriously corrupt for a great many years, and the hold of the old "ring" has not yet been thoroughly broken. It is, however, not only as a prison reformer that the Warden is noted; he has long been regarded as one of the chief political reformers in the Democratic party of New York State.

The criticism has been made, too, that Mr. Osborne is creating an improved system, through his own exceptional personality and intelligence, that would be difficult for another to carry on. But Mr. Osborne believes that the only thing necessary in a prison administration, under the self-government system, is patience and faith. "It does not need brains; for there is plenty of brains inside, among the men."

HOWARD FLORANCE.



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PRISONERS AT SING SING WELCOMING WARDEN OSBORNE, ON HIS RETURN FROM VACATION LAST MONTH
(Acting as officials of the Mutual Welfare League these men, with the prisoners' band, are here shown on parade outside the prison walls)



THE WARDEN'S OFFICE AND RESIDENCE, AND THE CELL BLOCK

(In the long structure at the right, which is nearly ninety years old, practically the entire prison community of 1500 men is housed. Beyond lies the Hudson. One wonders why prison grounds should have been laid out on the water's edge, rather than in the beautiful and healthful hills which rise up from the right of the picture. The lower tiers of cells are not only always damp, but frequently overrun with water)

THE NEW METHODS AT SING SING PRISON

BY THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE

THE old barbaric theory which regarded the treatment of criminals as a matter of retribution and punishment is gradually giving way to the civilized theory of reformation and education. Yet it remains a fact that our whole system of criminal law is still based upon that old and hateful theory.

The first duty of a prison reformer, therefore, is to impress and reimpress upon the public the doctrine that the present theory of the law must be changed,—that its aim should never be punishment, but *prevention* and *reform*. The theory of punishment is condemned by religion, discarded by experience, contrary to democratic ideals, and a disgrace to civilization.

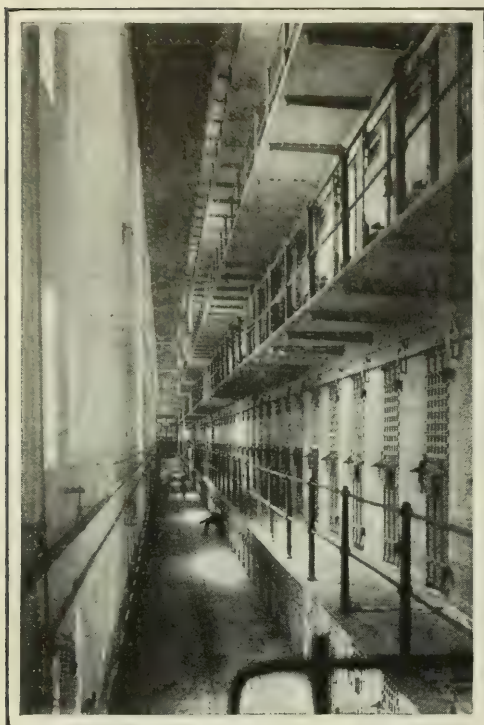
There must be a more enlightened system of justice, which shall include the administration of both county jails and State prisons; a system which shall aim at reform rather than punishment; which shall encourage those unfortunate fellow-men who have broken the laws to learn to adapt themselves to the proper conditions of organized society.

Law itself is but the formulated expression of the conscience and convenience of society, and to change the law we must first arouse public opinion to the need. The ordinary man thinks and talks of a criminal as a creature of a different breed than himself, and one that must be mastered; and punished as a matter of course.

The interest that people are now taking in the question of prison reform is encouraging. I confess that I have been greatly surprised at the way in which the public have gained a clear-headed notion of what we are doing at Sing Sing.

SELF-GOVERNMENT FOR PRISONERS

Ninety years ago the Auburn system, so-called, stood for enlightened and liberal treatment of the prisoners, as against the Philadelphia system of solitary confinement. It was practically the same system which now obtains generally throughout the country. But a new Auburn system has made its appearance, and, it is believed, will be ultimately recognized as far superior to any of the so-called "honor" systems which



THE LIVING QUARTERS OF 700 MEN

(The picture shows one-half of the cells, in six tiers. The others are in the same building, backing up against those seen here. All of the cells are exactly alike. It will be noticed that the familiar rows of windows merely admit light to the galleries and form no part of the cells. For perhaps an hour each day the sun's rays will come through the windows at such angle as to fall within the cells)

have prevailed in different institutions.

There have, of course, been advances in many States in the direction of kindness to the prisoners, a reduction of brutality and severity, and an increased number of prisoners trusted on their honor as individuals.

The self-governing system now in use at Auburn and Sing Sing not only goes a step beyond the honor system, but is totally different in kind,—for it trusts not the individual, but the entire prison community. The individual is made responsible not to the warden or to some autocrat, more or less benevolent, but to the whole body of his fellow-prisoners.

What we have done at Sing Sing is to lay the foundation for all good prison work, by getting a right spirit of coöperation among the prisoners. This has been accomplished by allowing the prisoners to form themselves into a Mutual Welfare League. To the league all the privileges have been given; and the league, as an organization, becomes responsible for the good conduct of its mem-

bers. Each violation of discipline or good conduct becomes an offense against the league, punishable by its duly constituted officers. Thus we bring to the aid of the prison authorities the public opinion of the prisoners, the loyalty of a man to his friends,—to the "gang,"—which is characteristic of prisoners.

My firm belief is that under such a prison system the men will become desirous and capable of leading an honest and useful life.

ESSENTIALS OF AN ENLIGHTENED PRISON SYSTEM

The very foundation of our prison system needs to be rebuilt; and at the bottom must lie three principles:

First—The law must decree not punishment, but temporary exile from society until the offender has proven by his conduct that he is fit to return.

Second—Society must brand no man as a criminal; but aim solely to reform the mental conditions under which a criminal act has been committed.



A PRISON CELL AND ITS INMATE

(The cot occupies more than half the floor space. Walls, ceiling, and floor are of stone. The only opening is the door,—which, of course, is always shut when the cell is occupied. In the lower tiers, even on a hot summer day, the walls and ceiling glisten with moisture. Before Mr. Osborne became Warden it was customary to lock the men in these cells from four o'clock in the afternoon until the next morning. Now they remain in the yard until six, and go out again in the evening to attend lectures or moving-picture entertainments)



THE DORMITORY—FOR HONOR MEN AND THOSE WHO ARE IN POOR HEALTH

(There are more prisoners than cells, and part of the floor over the chapel is utilized as extra sleeping quarters. Thus not only is the crowding of two men in the same cell avoided, but another means of reward for good conduct is furnished)

Third—The prison must be an institution where every inmate shall have the largest practicable amount of individual freedom, because “it is liberty alone that fits men for liberty.”

The plan of sentencing a convicted man to an indefinite period of imprisonment,—the length of which is to be determined by his conduct and tendency to reform,—has been tried and has proved itself. It should be extended. After the verdict of “guilty” is pronounced by the jury the man should be told by the court that, as he has transgressed the laws of society, he must remain in exile from it, *until he has shown by his conduct that he is fit to return.*

Then every help should be given him, every resource of the State should aid him, every incentive should be offered him,—to learn his lesson. When he has learned it, be that time long or short, society should welcome him back to its midst. It should not turn its back upon him, because his very return will show that he has worked out his own salvation, that from the bitterness of experience he has learned the truth he would not or could not learn without it.

There will be those who will learn their lesson without friction, and who will rapidly come to the point where they can re-

join the outside world. But there will also be those who cannot get along even with this modified liberty; so they should be placed in an “inner prison” where even that liberty would be further modified.

But always the basis of the system must be not more and more repression, but simply less and less liberty; the accent always being on the liberty. As much freedom as the man can stand; no attempt to close the avenues of wrong-doing; but rather that the avenues to wrong-doing be left open and very apparent, so that he may learn to avoid them.

“It is liberty alone that fits men for liberty,” as Mr. Gladstone wrote regarding Ireland’s demand for home rule. The prison system now endeavors to make men industrious by driving them to work; to make them virtuous by removing temptation; to make them respect the law by forcing them to obey the edicts of authority; to make them far-sighted by allowing them no chance to exercise foresight, to give them individual initiative by treating them in large groups; in short to prepare them again for society by placing them in conditions as unlike real society as they could well be made.

Character, however, is made not through absence of temptation, but by resistance of temptation. That is one of the fundamental



A PORTION OF THE YARD, OVERLOOKING THE HUDSON

(Between four o'clock and six o'clock the men have free use of the yard,—playing baseball, tennis, and a form of bowling. Or they may prefer merely to stroll around and watch others at play. Before the "new freedom" came there was no recreation of any kind, and the only use of the yard was upon a doctor's prescription, calling for perhaps ten minutes a day! In the building at the left are the mess hall and the auditorium used for religious services, lectures, and moving pictures. At the right is one of the work shops. The photograph was made from a window in the cell block)

mistakes of the old prison system. There was a vague idea in the minds of many people that men can be made better by training in absence of temptation; so the endeavor always was to remove all temptation in prison life.

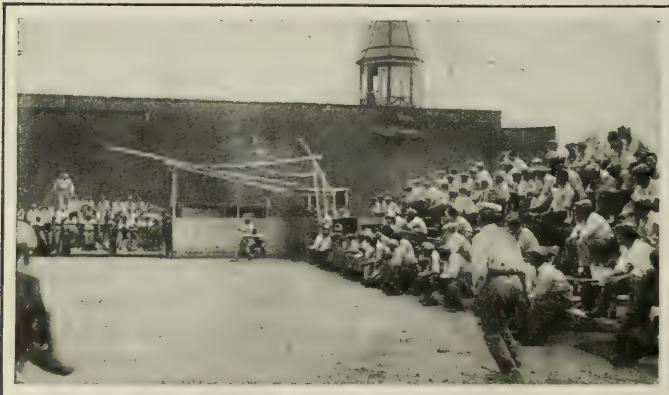
SOME RESULTS OF THE OLD PLAN AND OF THE NEW

As a logical outcome of the old theory, the men at Sing Sing were forbidden to talk or even to turn their heads in the great mess hall. Sixty officers were detailed at every meal to see that no man spoke, and if there was any appearance of an attempt to do so



A LIBRARY OF 15,000 VOLUMES

(It is not as well patronized as formerly, for then there was nothing else to do but read, from four o'clock in the afternoon until bed time)



A BASEBALL GAME AT SING SING

(Teams representing the various shops play every afternoon; and on Saturdays and Sundays there are special games with visiting clubs from nearby cities. Upon these occasions victory rests often with the prison team)

punishment would immediately follow by imprisonment in the dark cell. Six days' confinement for turning the head was not unusual.

Everywhere the prisoner was subjected to an atmosphere of suspicion. It was assumed that he was thoroughly wicked, that he could not be trusted to go a step apart from the regular routine.

The result was a system where men could not talk naturally, or walk naturally, or work naturally. In fact, they could not do anything naturally but breathe,—and there was not enough air to do that naturally in many of the cells.

Being human, prisoners resent brutality. I do not think any decent man objects to a fair punishment for what he has done. But when it is carried beyond a fair balance—it begets resentment and a determination to get even, and more than even if necessary.

At Sing Sing we have removed the officers from the mess hall, so that 1200 prisoners eat pleasantly and sociably together, chatting like any other good-natured crowd of men, and with far less disorder than under

the old system. The officers have also been taken out of the work shops, which are left to the care of the foremen and their assistants.

Everywhere the old atmosphere of suspicion has been replaced by an atmosphere of confidence and trust. Instead of the assumption that every man is inherently evil, and that every one of his acts must be subject to surveillance, he is assumed to be trustworthy until he shows himself false to his trust. Then his fellow-prisoners take him in hand, try him before



A FAVORITE SUMMER PASTIME

(The prisoners are allowed to swim in an enclosed part of the Hudson. Here they are face to face with temptation—for beyond the fence lies the open river, and within plain view is the Jersey shore)



ONE OF FOUR CLASSROOMS

(New York has had prison schools for the past ten years. The men are given one hour's instruction each day, fellow-inmates serving as teachers. During the coming winter the men at Sing Sing will also have the privilege of attending evening classes. Besides the "three R's" one may learn stenography, telegraphy, electrical engineering, or automobile repairing)

a judiciary board, and determine what discipline is necessary to check the evil.

WHAT SING SING USED TO BE

Sing Sing has long been a prison of the old type, in which the emphasis was entirely laid upon the mere imprisonment of the man, having no real consideration of the question how he was going to feel and act when he went back into society. The prison system in New York, up to within recent times, had been based upon false theories, and very

inefficiently and dishonestly administered.

In order to have a prison honestly and efficiently administered, as a business institution, it must be kept out of politics. And let me call attention to the fact that corruption in a prison department is infinitely worse than corruption in a highway, public works, or conservation department, because those departments deal with inanimate objects, whereas the prisons deal with men.

THE PRISON LABOR PROBLEM

It is recognized now clearly that in all our prisons men should learn to labor. But it is not so clearly recognized that when you force men to labor that is slave labor; and there are few people who learn to love work by being forced to do it. You are grating against all the grooves of human nature when



TENNIS IS ANOTHER INNOVATION AT SING SING

(The cell block may be seen from any corner of the yard being a constant reminder to the men, while at play, of former conditions—when the hours now spent in recreation were passed in confinement and in silence)



GONE ARE THE LOCK-STEP, THE PRISON UNIFORM, AND THE OFFICER

(Yet the movement of 1500 men at one time from cells or workshops to the mess-hall is accomplished without confusion. The men are divided into companies, and respond to the beat of a drum. Instead of by uniformed guards, with clubs in hand, the men are directed by fellow-prisoners, whom they themselves have selected)

you take such action. If it is desired that these men should work willingly when they come out of prison (and with many of them voluntary honest labor is the first necessity of their reformed life), then they should be taught while in prison voluntarily to choose labor rather than idleness. In order to do that you must give them liberty to remain idle; but let them bear the economic results of idleness—starvation and dependence.

Outside the walls the man must choose between work and idleness—between honesty and crime. Why not let him teach himself these lessons before he comes out? Such things are best learned by experience.

The present problems are, first to find enough work for the men to do, for the prison industries have been so badly managed in the past that it is hard to make headway; and, second, the constant shifting of the prison

population, which makes good factory work difficult. Many experienced workers are drafted off to other prisons; others come to the end of their terms. Another difficulty is the lack of incentive. The State pays a cent and a half a day, whether the man is a good worker, or a poor one, or a lazy one,—or, in fact, whether he works at all. There is absolutely no inducement for a man to do good work. Slave labor



IN THE GREAT MESS-HALL, WHERE 1200 OF THE MEN EAT SIMULTANEOUSLY

(The State law decrees that they shall have "a sufficient quantity of inferior but wholesome food." There are now three meals a day, instead of two. Formerly the men carried a chunk of bread with them to their cells in the afternoon, and that constituted their supper. In this room, under the old system, men were forbidden to talk or even to turn their heads, and sixty officers were detailed to enforce the rule. Now they eat pleasantly and sociably together, with no officer present)

is notoriously inefficient.

Another of the problems of prison labor is that the kind of work done by the men is for the most part unattractive, because they have no expectation of doing the same kind of work when they leave prison. The majority of the men at Sing Sing, for instance, make shoes, brooms, mats, or underwear.

The immediate necessity at Sing Sing is the purchase of a large tract of land, and the erection of a modern kind of institution. When the prison is removed to its large tract of



THE KNITTING SHOP, WHERE UNDERWEAR AND SOCKS ARE MADE

(In the distance may be seen the spindles of the machines. In the foreground is the finished product. This is the most important shop at Sing Sing. Since prisoner-foremen were substituted for guards and voluntary labor for the compulsory standard, the output of the shop has increased)



"YE TOGGERY"—THE WELFARE LEAGUE STORE

(Run by and for the inmates and equipped with cash register, typewriter, and telephone. Goods are sold at wholesale prices plus 5 per cent., the profit being turned over to the general fund of the League)

land I hope that farming may be made the basis of labor, so as to provide as largely as possible for the support of the inmates. The prison indeed, ought, as far as possible, to represent a real community. I should have the State pay a full wage; and I believe that if the State would allow the prisoners to aid in the support of their families, the prisoners would do so much better work than the prisons

could be, in a very large measure, self-sustaining.

It should never be lost sight of that it is the duty of the State to make the prison a school where men can be trained for citizenship,—and that includes the learning of some industrial pursuit, so that a man may be able to live by honest work.

A PRISON-REFORM CREED

I have stated in my recent book, "Within Prison Walls," and in more than one public speech, certain general principles that my further experience fully supports. Some of these follow:

No sensible person proposes to sentimentalize over the law-breaker. Call the prison by



A SECTION OF THE SHOE SHOP

(Here the men make not only their own shoes, but footwear for women in State institutions and children in orphan asylums)

any name you please, yet prisons of some sort we must have so long as men commit crime; and that, from present indications, will be for many generations to come.

So far from setting men free from prison, I would put more men in prison than are there now; for we should send up all who now escape by the wiles of crooked lawyers, and we should include the crooked lawyers.

But behind the prison walls we should relax the iron discipline—the hideous, degrading, unsuccessful system of silence and punishment—and substitute a system that will be fair to all men, a limited form of freedom, and work in the open air.

My personal observations of the working of the Mutual Welfare League at Auburn and Sing Sing have made me realize more firmly than ever before these doctrines discussed in the volume just mentioned:

(1) The prisoners are men—real men—your brethren and mine.



EDITORIAL ROOM OF THE "STAR OF HOPE."

(The inmates of five State prisons in New York publish a semi-monthly periodical. It is edited and printed at Sing Sing. The editor-in-chief [seated] is a man of legal as well as editorial training, who has held the post for six years. The periodical is now "set up" on a linotype machine,—a gift to the Welfare League, as the printers will tell you, and not the property of the State)

(2) If you treat them like beasts it will be hard for them to keep from degenerating into beasts. If you treat them like men you can help them to rise.

(3) If you trust them they will show themselves worthy of trust.

(4) If you place responsibility upon them they will rise to it.



THE PRISONERS' BAND

(Contributions from friends have enabled the League to purchase instruments and music costing nearly \$500; and the members think that it is well worth the expense)

AUTOMOBILES BY THE MILLION

HOW QUANTITY PRODUCTION OF PLEASURE CARS HAS BROUGHT THE AVERAGE PRICE FROM \$2125 IN 1907 TO \$814 IN 1915—PROBABLE FURTHER REDUCTIONS IN COST TO THE CONSUMER

BY J. GEORGE FREDERICK

WE are in for it,—the complete automobilization of the country from coast to coast, from the hog farm in the Ozark Mountains to the Fifth Avenue palace. In the last fiscal year (1914-1915) 703,527 cars were sold,—a 36 per cent. increase over the year before, though the money spent on them was only about 10 per cent. more! The total number of cars running is now over 2,000,000, and in eight years the average price of autos has dropped from \$2125 to \$814.

What it all means we haven't stopped to figure out, but that it is a big thing,—a monstrously big thing,—is already apparent. It is actually changing the life of nearly all classes of people, remaking business in many aspects, and strikingly affecting that very foundation of our economic life,—land and property values.

What does all this mean to the average man and the average family?

Well, to get the right point of view about it, we should look backward for some similar phenomena with which to compare it. The steam railroad alone affords the proper comparison. Thirty or forty years ago a *railroadization* of the country was in full bloom. We have now about 250,000 miles of railway,—far more than any other nation. Everybody knows what a vitally big thing that has been; it is actually credited with *making* the country. Better means of communication always remove barriers, lower costs, and stimulate every form of human activity and enjoyment.

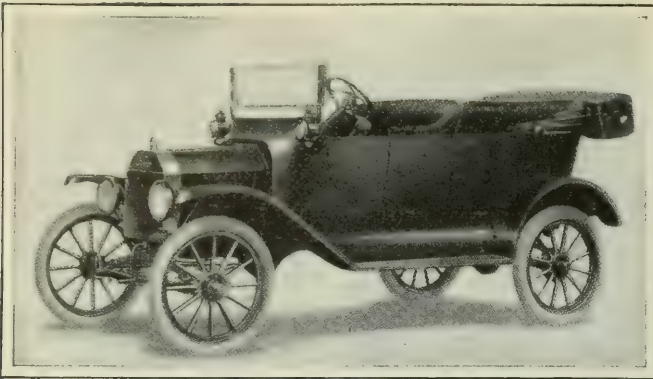
The railroad, however great its advance in intercommunication, has, nevertheless, severe limitations. It is essentially a *mass* transportation method,—that is, it carries merchandise and people in *bulk*, along main trunk lines. It cannot penetrate into the byways, nor is it available *for the individual and his private uses*.

The trolley was another jump forward

toward the ideal of more widely penetrating and more individually useful means of transportation. In a comparatively few years 45,000 miles of trolley lines were built. These have also done great things for the country. Then we had the bicycle, which gave a faint glimpse of what might be; yet the horse and carriage still remained the only practically available means of individual transportation.

But what good was the horse and carriage when the people were swarming to the cities so fast that instead of the greater portion by far of the population being in rural districts, as was the case formerly, the reverse is now true,—the greater portion is now in and around cities and towns? The impracticability of keeping a horse in a town withheld millions of people from the enjoyment of individual travel. The joy that people used to feel riding on a rocking chair on the Erie canal boats or the open passenger cars of early times was no doubt the same joy that people feel to-day when riding in the luxurious tonneau of an automobile. But travel of any automatic kind is not so novel to-day, and almost without knowing it, the world was red ripe for a new extension of transportation which would bring *all* places together, as the capillaries of the human body bring blood to the tiniest corners of the organism and connect them with main arteries. The demand was for automatic *individual* transportation, and in *luxury*. Luxury was the keynote of it. Flushed with successful work and savings, people wanted to get the same soft seat and swift movement that a Pullman coach gives them,—but for *all* of their goings and comings, to *all* places, at their own sweet will.

Here, then, is the human-nature secret of the marvelous place the auto has quickly assumed in our life. We wanted very much, indeed, what it had to give,—that is why the making of autos jumped from 3700 cars



(\$440—20-horsepower, four-cylinder, two speeds forward and reverse, electric headlights and high-power magneto, left-hand drive)

servative financiers took steps to stop the dreadful waste and inflation, and many bubbles burst.

Then things began to happen. The new era of the automobile was about to dawn. New men came into the field, and organization in the fullest sense of the word was started. Some of the best brains of typical American business genius went into the field. Ever since then (about 1907) the real *automobilization* of not only this country, but lat-

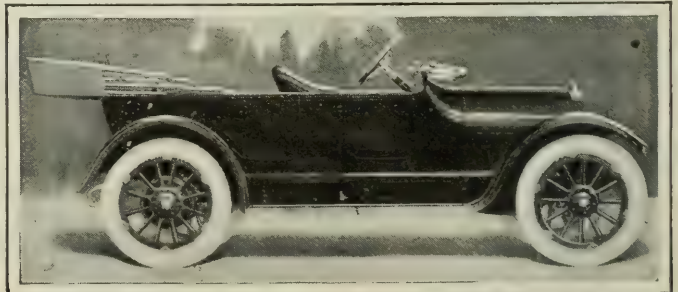
in 1899 to 703,527 in 1915, with spectacular possibilities for the future.

In fact, we Americans took the automobile much as a savage tribe takes a new intoxicant, —we regaled ourselves with it quite intoxicatedly for a series of years before we even thought seriously of what it might do for us in a practical way. We almost grabbed the cars out of the hands of the makers, so eager were we for them. We paid as high as from \$6000 to \$12,000 for an auto (immense prices measured by our standards of to-day), and vented upon the auto all our national vices of extravagance, snobbishness, excess and carelessness. Men came into automobile offices with their wives, peered around the show car a few minutes, asked their wives if they liked the seat cushions, and then ordered it sent around to the house. People snobbishly affected to judge of wealth and standing by the make of one's car. Foreign cars inferior to domestic cars were bought at higher prices, for purposes of social impression. Chauffeurs outrageously grafted on supplies, and misused cars. Houses were mortgaged and ruin was accomplished for many who paid the high prices for cars and then could not stand the high maintenance and repair cost. Bankers protested and entered demerit against the automobile as a degenerating factor in life. Automobile-makers, made dizzy with the pace of the "auto game," expanded lavishly, over-capitalized, undertook to build entire cities or effect great stock-jobbing consolidations, with lavishly paid, incompetent officers and executives,—until con-

terly also of the world, has been going forward in a wonderful manner.

THE ENGINEERS' JOB,—STANDARDIZATION

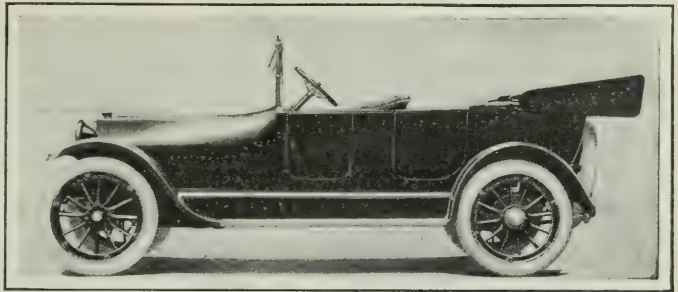
The first thing to do by way of remedy was to take automobiles out of the list of expensive luxuries, requiring constant mechanical attention; for it was realized that if this were not done, the market would shrink rather than expand; the auto would degenerate into the status of a fad, doomed to collapse like the bicycle craze. The important load of responsibility for saving the automobile for the average American fell upon the engineers. There is a fascinating romance in their efforts alone. They realized that if they worked as separate individuals employed by separate firms they could accomplish little. The great need was for *standardization*. The nation could never be automobilized if there were a hundred separate makers with separate sizes and standards, compelling you and me as automobile owners to wait for weeks for the arrival of a particular kind of screw-thread used by a particular company, if something went wrong. It would be like traveling when every town you came to used a different kind of money.



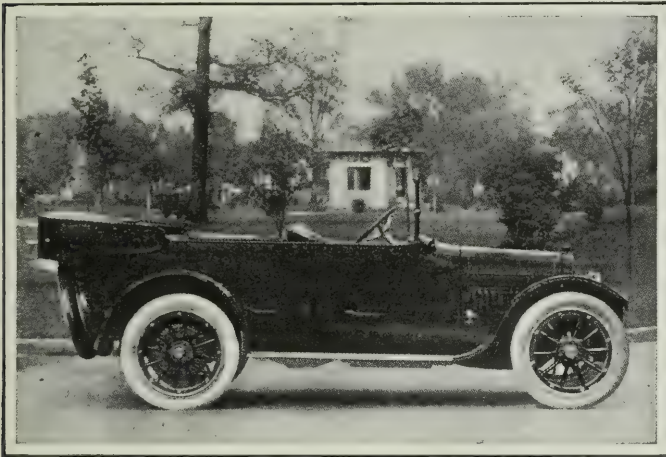
(\$750—35-horsepower, four-cylinder, electric starting and lighting, demountable rims, left-hand drive, high-tension magneto, built-in windshield, non-skid tires in rear, deep upholstery)

So the automobile engineers, like the true scientists they were, banded themselves together to work as one. They appointed committees to investigate separate problems,—one to go to Europe and study into hard metals, another to revise screw-thread standards (which they found had never been improved since ancient naval days). The entire manufacturing field has been advanced by the striking work of farmer,—in line for its benefits. All automobile engineers.

Also, they went to work on the tire-auto is now destined, must be so standard-makers, to set standards for wheel-rims, and ized or fail.



(1050—35-horsepower, eight-cylinder, electric starting and lighting, demountable rims, left-hand drive, full set of instruments, full floating axle, Timken bearings, one-man top, safety tread tires, high-grade steels)



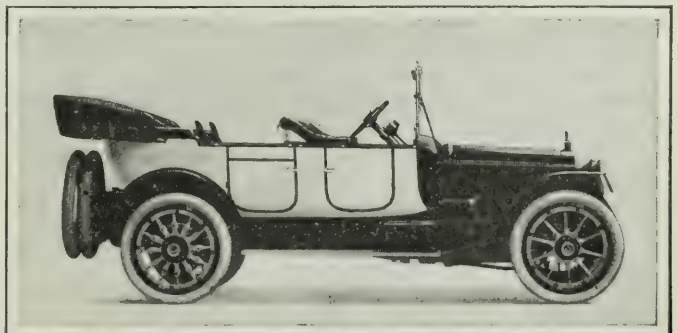
(\$2080—31-horsepower, eight-cylinder, new V-type motor, automatic cranking device, 122-inch wheelbase, one-man top, windshield, nickel trimmings, full set of instruments, demountable rims, tires 36 x 4½)

to limit sizes. You can imagine how glad the States as a market near the base line,—if tire-makers were for this, because otherwise prices were made as low as some cars will they were obliged to make dozens of sizes of likely be offered at in the future. There is wheels and rims and keep dealers stocked good reason to believe that there are 5,500,- not get your size readily.

To-day all these things, and many more, are perfectly accomplished, and automobiles are perhaps the most interchangeable of all mechanisms. Standardization has a new meaning since the automobile came. It saved the auto from ultimate annihilation, and instead has put the average man,—the clerk and the

LOW-PRICED CARS FOR THE MANY

But popular price was just as vital as standardization of mechanisms. That low-price automobile genius in Detroit who is now so well known, had already proved that the automobile market's depth and capacity was exactly in ratio to the possible price reduction. It was, to all intents, a bottomless well, plumbable only as you figured the price of automobiles. Or, it was a triangle (see illustration), with a small market at the tip where the prices were high, but with the majority of families in the United



(\$2600—25-horsepower (touring, phaeton, or runabout), seven-passenger, 12-cylinder (V-type), self-starting system, electric lights power tire pump, one-man top, windshield and ventilator, 36x4½ tires, demountable rims, choice of wood finishes and monogram, spare lamps, divided front seats, extra seats, etc.)

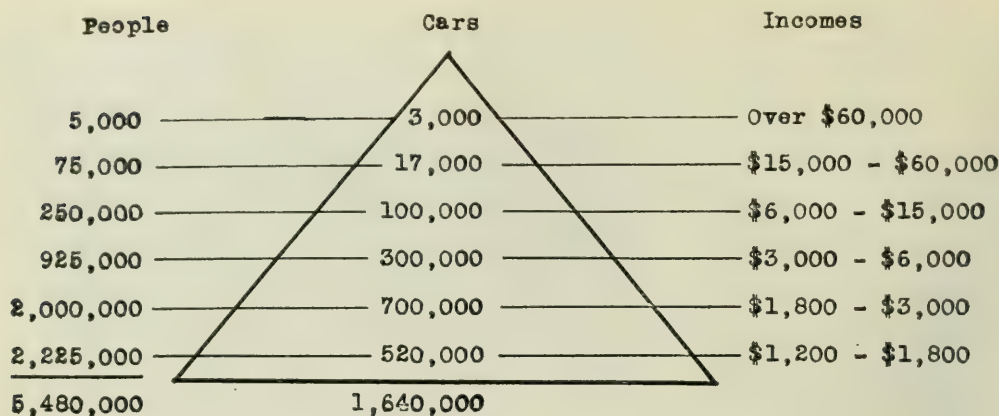


DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE AUTOMOBILE MARKET

000 people in the United States with incomes of \$1200 or over, and 3,225,000 with incomes of \$1800 and over.

Once these truths were fully grasped, there began a pretty race for quantity production. It was realized that automobiles would in the future really have to be *sold*,—that is, people would hardly step up to the counter, and order them, as, figuratively speaking, they had done in the past. Price, service, and salesmanship then became the deep concerns of auto-makers. It was demanded of the engineers, again (and financiers), to bring about quantity production, and it can easily be imagined that efficiency marvels have been accomplished to enable one maker to produce 318,000 of his cars annually and others from 10,000 to 100,000. One Middle Western maker of moderate-price cars made only 400 cars in 12 months eight years ago,—to-day he ships 400 cars *every day* (and plans to make it 600 in a few more months) and his car is *not* the cheapest car,—there are at least ten others selling lower. He has sixty-seven factory buildings covering seventy-nine acres.

OUTPUT-INCREASING MACHINERY

To accomplish highest production in the manner which has been necessary, the machining of parts by automatic action has been the most important element. In former times, cylinders were bored one at a time, necessitating many handlings and separate machines. Now, even the six-cylinder motors are all bored *at one operation*. A block of cylinders now requires 120 minutes, whereas it used to take *eleven hours*. To machine a crankcase it formerly took 1275 minutes,—now only 314 minutes.

Needless to say, machines which can do

such work are large in size and enormously costly. The price of fifty or 100 automobiles must, in some cases, be invested in one machine to make one part. The same is true of planing, which had to be done on one side of the metal at a time, but is now done on three sides at a time,—also by big special machines. Again, take the cutting of gears. One gear at a time was the rule in former days, whereas a dozen are cut at once now,—and more quickly than one used to be cut! When you realize the costly nature of machines to make single parts you can also realize, first, that the tremendous investment necessary to equip a factory with large production facilities has not made it easy for ambitious manufacturers to bring the price down. It has also made it a practical necessity to greatly reduce the number of parts, while at the same time there was the compulsion of competition to *add to the facilities* provided in the automobile.

THINGS THAT GO WITH THE CAR

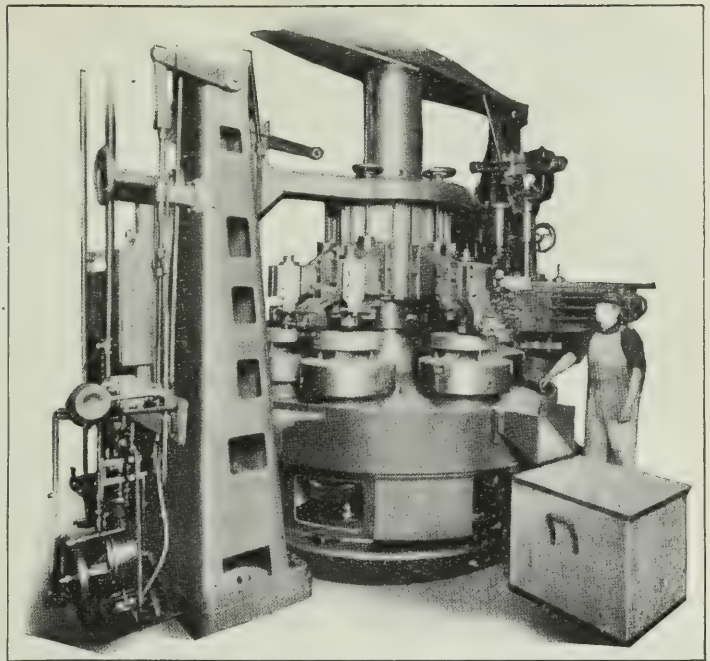
This latter phase of automobile-selling has tremendously advanced in the past three or four years. It is interesting to note what one can purchase to-day as contrasted with what one was able to purchase seven or eight years ago. For \$1800 one could at that time secure from a few of the pioneers of the moderate-priced car, a fairly serviceable machine. As a matter of course, at that price it did not have high-grade metal fittings or accessories that are possible to obtain for \$600 or \$700 less to-day. It had no self-starter, of course; it had an imitation leather top, was minus a lighting system, and usually used battery ignition, unless extra was paid for a magneto. There was no speedometer, oil gauge or gasoline pressure system; the

wheel base was about 100 inches, the tires were small, and upholstery was not of leather or high-grade deep cushioning, and bronze bearings and chrome nickel steel or roller bearings were not for that type of cars; the rear axle was not full floating and there were no demountable rims. Back in 1903 no automobile even had a top on it; and a poor doctor who had rigged one of his own to shelter himself, wrote complainingly to the *Horseless Age* on the subject!

To-day all the above enumerated points and many others are included in a car at less than \$1000. To make a direct comparison, a car which sold at not less than \$2300 six or seven years ago did not even include many of the good points of the lower-priced car, which now can be bought for about \$800,—a little more than one-third the price! The full sweep of the accomplishment of the past six or seven years in automobile manufacture and service-rendering is thus made apparent.

WOMEN CAN DRIVE THE IMPROVED CAR

One must not overlook the full significance of the new improvements in automobiles as they affect the place of the automobile in the present and the future. The self-starter is, perhaps, the greatest of these. Living conditions, both in the city and country, together with the increasing outdoor tendencies of women, have combined to open a door of opportunity to the auto self-starter, which has hitherto been closed. Women as drivers of automobiles have increased rapidly in numbers throughout the country. At any live suburban station may be seen lined up dozens of women bringing to or taking from the station the men of their families who "commute" to the city. The chauffeur is no longer an indispensable part of automobile upkeep and expense, both for the reason that the snobbish conception of automobiling is disappearing, and also because the modernly equipped car does not demand the constant



A MODERN FLYWHEEL MACHINE

(With the old turret lathe, the completion of a single flywheel required 123 minutes. The time now, using the machine shown above, is 14 minutes for six wheels. On the old lathe three men were needed. Now one man superintends the making of six wheels. In an ordinary day shift 80 wheels are turned out, which in the past was a three or four-days' task. On the flywheel cost sheet a saving of 80 per cent. has been effected)

trained mechanical services of a chauffeur.

The suburban wife who has never been able or willing to crank a car or manage the old type of gear-shift levers, now finds that even a many-cylindrical, seven-passenger car responds to her tender touch as lightly and readily as a sewing machine or a typewriter. The demountable rim for the first time enables her to cope with tire trouble on the road. Before that improvement, it was quite too much to ask of any woman to do the strong-arm work necessary to wrench loose a tire and jam it back again, and operate a hand-pump. For a few dollars one can now obtain a power or spark-plug pump which dispenses altogether with the hand-pump.

A very important part of the automobilization of the country hinges upon this entry of great numbers of women into automobile-driving. The suburban woman does her calling with the new moderate-priced, easy-to-run car; she goes marketing with it, making the automobile take the place of the market-basket of her grandmother, thus assisting in domestic economy. The woman of former days who desired to keep herself a companion to her children had to seclude herself with them, and to deny herself social calls or much going about. The modern

young matron takes her children with her in the car, having the pleasure of their companionship and affording them all additional outside exercise. A score of economic and social advantages, pleasures, comforts and conveniences have come in the wake of the automobile in the city and suburban districts, not to speak of rural sections. The entire outlook of the individual on life and community benefits has been enlarged and sweetened. The movement of city folk toward the suburbs has been enormously accelerated. Recreations and social pleasures, visiting, attendance at church and school, and general culture have all been deepened and improved in the most directly traceable way.

WORK FOR GOOD ROADS

Perhaps the most prominent and striking part played by the automobile as a national factor has been its effect on roads. Only a small percentage of the roads of this country are improved even to-day (about 8.7 per cent. in all!), but in past years the percentage of improved roads has hardly been even half of that. Business conditions have repressed much road-building that is already planned, but the automobilist is fighting hard for better roads, whether he is a farmer or a millionaire. The political sentiment and pressure which the two million automobilists of the country exert will surely eventually give this country a decent percentage of travelable roads. At least two-thirds of the reasons for present road development are automobile reasons; so to the automobile may be ascribed credit for the widespread benefits of improved roads. What are these benefits, and what are the effects being produced by the good-roads pressure?

Let us consider Lee County, Va., as an example, as reported by the United States Government. A 100-acre farm there was sold for \$1800 before the roads near it were improved. Directly after the roads were improved, the price put on it was \$3000. In the same county is a 188-acre farm which was bought for \$6000, and directly after the roads were improved was sold for \$9000,—a 50-per-cent. gain.

In Jackson County, Ala., \$250,000 was appropriated for improving 24 per cent. of the county's roads. The 1900 census records the value of land at \$4.90 per acre in that county. In practice, the average actual selling price was from \$6 to \$15 per acre. The 1910 census gives the valuation at \$9.79, while the average selling price is \$15 to \$25 per acre. This represents a tremendous jump

in values in return for an expenditure of \$250,000 for good roads at the instigation of automobilists.

As a matter of fact, it is impossible to give here the tremendous array of proof of the far-reaching influence of the moderate-priced automobile upon land values through road improvements, and all that these two things mean. The ubiquity of the automobile has concentrated technical attention upon better road-building, and brought into prominence the concrete road (which is now the high standard everywhere acclaimed).

The concrete road will permit hauling of a load of from 5000 to 8000 pounds, whereas a dirt road will permit a haul of from zero up to 800 pounds (according to its condition and the weather). A macadam road will permit a haul of from 2000 to 5000 pounds.

Simple as these figures may seem, they are really of the most vital meaning when analyzed. Farmers now load up two or three tons on a wagon, hitch *four* horses to it and haul to the concrete road. Arriving there they put only *two* horses to the load and take the other two *back to the farm to work*. The concrete road permits two horses to haul what takes four horses on the dirt road. This is the human picture behind the fact that the average cost of hauling per ton-mile, when only a small percentage of the roads are improved, is 22.7 cents; whereas with a larger amount of improved roads, 5 cents per ton-mile may be saved. Now, this saving applied to hauling one quarter of wheat, amounts to \$36, which is 4 per cent. interest on \$900. I leave it to the reader to use his imagination for this instance as to what the further automobilization of the country, and its resulting effect for good roads, must mean to our national life in the next decade.

Just to connect this matter of roads with another human illustration, get this picture: Up in Michigan, where they have so many concrete roads, the school children have roller skates and *roller-skate to school* on the concrete roads. Contrast this with what happens in some of the backward Southern States, where the children go to school over crude mountain trails, through swamps and thick underbrush,—when they can go to school at all!

Illinois and California have provided splendid examples of the modern point of view,—mainly because in those States automobiles are now in larger proportion than in any other States in the West. Illinois has set an example with its State Aid Law

and is building concrete roads where formerly prevailed the Illinois mire (which is wonderful for growing corn, but terrible to drive an auto over in wet weather). California three years ago put out an \$18,000,000 bond issue for 3000 miles of concrete roads, 1800 miles of which are trunk lines running up and down the State, with laterals connecting between. Ohio is building brick roads of an unusual and permanent kind. Agitation for national highways is well known and advancing as rapidly as financially possible.

THE RATIO OF CAR TO INCOME

The interesting question is, What does the future hold in store for the automobile, and what in the future is the automobile going to do to us? With 2,000,000 automobile owners to-day, and every indication that the annual production for some years to come will be *more* than the 703,000 produced this year, we face in plain facts a probable annual sale of over 1,000,000 automobiles every year, on an average for the next five years at least. Until the automobile became popular there were about 1,000,000 carriages sold each year, and as these were undoubtedly sold mainly to rural and suburban populations there is sound reason to believe that 2,000,000 automobiles per year is not an extravagant future prediction in the slightly more distant future.

The high-priced automobile makers used to insist that no man making less than \$3000 annually could afford to purchase an auto; but that was before the day of the magic of the moderate-priced perfected automobile. To-day it is admitted that no one knows the income starting point for automobile ownership. The stiff-necked makers of highest-priced autos who four or five years ago affected to despise the moderate-priced car, believed that their future lay with the more wealthy coterie of auto-owners, who, it was believed, would "always" buy expensive cars. They cheerfully admit to-day that they were wrong, and that *the number of buyers of high-priced cars is steadily decreasing.*

A well-known automobile engineer, talking to a group of well-informed automobile specialists, was optimistic enough to lay out the following table as representing the possible future sales:

Class	No. of Autos	Price
1	40,000	at \$1800 to \$4000
2	100,000	at 900 to 1500
3	500,000	at 500 to 700
4	1,000,000	at 250 to 400
Total, 1,640,000 cars annually.		

He showed that by introducing further fuel economy, low operating cost, lower weight, less internal loss due to friction and oscillating masses, automobiles would be made fool-proof, almost completely automatic,—as indestructible as the best modern genius can devise and a wonderful instrument for general popular benefit.

Another well-known automobile man has given study to another and rather more optimistic prediction of automobile sales possibilities, according to incomes. His table of possible sales to various classes of income is given herewith:

No. of Autos	To People with Income.
7000	over \$60,000
40,000	\$15,000 to \$60,000
253,000	6000 to 15,000
700,000	3000 to 6000
1,500,000	1800 to 3000
1,300,000	1200 to 1800
Total, 3,800,000 cars.	

As the graphic chart showing the progress of price-reduction in automobiles demonstrates, the price is unquestionably certain to go still further downward. The hand-writing on the wall has been seen by the old-time manufacturers of very high-priced cars who endeavored to cater only to the small coterie of the wealthy, and there is scarcely one of these old high-priced car manufacturers who has not in the past year or two brought out cars of moderate price. The car of the future is the car of moderate price; not necessarily the extremely cheap car, for the craze for the very cheapest cars in the market, irrespective of quality, design, luxury, and service, is only a forerunner of the taste for the really good moderate-priced car. The very cheap cars, of which so many are now made, are merely whetters of the appetites of the plumbers, the grocers, the middle-grade farmers, and the clerks. They induce such people to save and to drop various extravagances. They give the "automobile habit of mind" to great numbers who later become buyers of better cars. The more of the very cheap cars that are sold, the more of the better but moderate-priced cars are sure to be sold,—this is the view of the wiseacres in automobiledom.

THE EXPORT TRADE

The war, by the way (contrary to the ideas of many), is going to help exceedingly in hastening the automobilization of the country. It is going to do this, first, by opening up the markets of the world in a hurry,

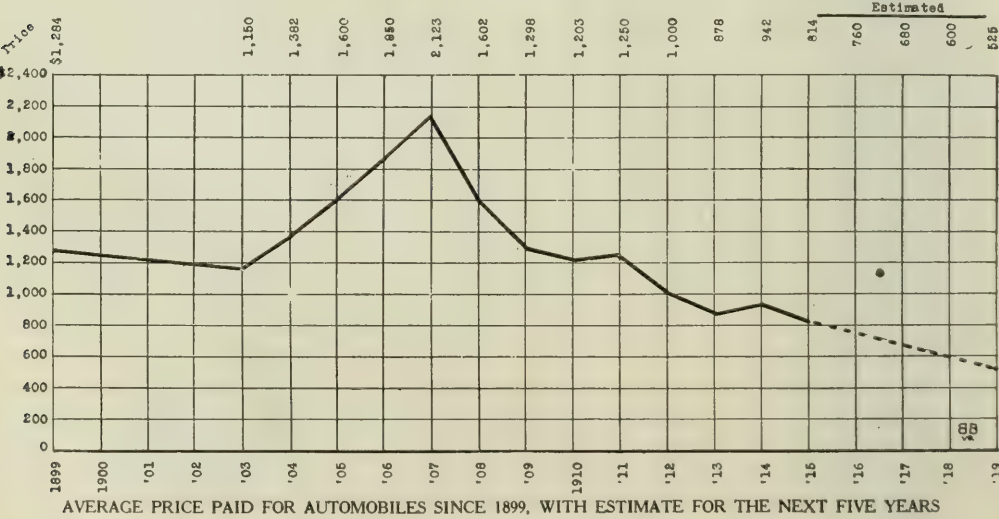
as it is now doing, and whetting the appetite of manufacturers for export trade; and, second, by providing just at this time the large amounts of ready cash from bulk foreign orders, to encourage manufacturers to put in the requisite large-quantity type of machinery and build the additions necessary to handle the large production which would otherwise come more gradually. As soon as war orders stop, automobile-manufacturers will develop the domestic markets with especial vigor.

It is true that the export of passenger cars dropped from 28,000 in 1913-14 to 23,000 in 1914-15 (ending last June); but ever since last spring the rate per month has been rapidly increasing, and more than 5000 cars a month are now being shipped abroad,—which is a greater monthly number than has ever been shipped before. The great war orders are for trucks mainly,—the shipments for 1914-15 being 14,000 as compared with only 784 in 1913-14. This is a truly tremendous increase. We are shipping approximately \$9,000,000 worth of trucks abroad every month at present. The foreign powers bought up all the old models in stock and stimulated manufacturers imme-

diately to design new models. These benefits, as well as many others, in mechanical and quality facilities, will now bring added speed and facility to the automobilization of America.

That such a prediction is no "pipe-dream" is proved by what Wall Street thinks. Wall Street's chief stock in trade is to anticipate the future. Once it despised automobile securities,—to-day such securities are, next to the ammunition stocks, the chief interest of the Street. And with good reason! General Motors several years ago sold as low as 40. To-day it is selling at 260! There are four automobile stocks listed on the Stock Exchange (General Motors, Studebaker, Willys-Overland, and Maxwell), and the number of points which these stocks have gained since the opening of the Exchange totals approximately 320. In other words, each share of these four companies has added \$320 of value to itself,—a quite unprecedented rise of valuation,—and a brass-tack demonstration that the automobilization of America is believed in and backed by the keenest commercial and financial brains of the country.

MOTOR-CAR PRODUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES (Passenger and Commercial)		
Year	Number	Value
1899	3700	\$4,750,000
1903	11,000	12,650,000
1904	21,700	30,000,000
1905	25,000	40,000,000
1906	34,000	62,900,000
1907	44,000	93,400,000
1908	85,000	137,800,000
1909	126,500	164,200,000
1910	187,000	225,000,000
1911	210,000	262,500,000
1912	378,000	378,000,000
1913	485,000	425,000,000
1914	515,000	485,000,000
1915	703,527	573,000,000
Total for 14 years	2,125,900	\$2,320,200,000



AVERAGE PRICE PAID FOR AUTOMOBILES SINCE 1899, WITH ESTIMATE FOR THE NEXT FIVE YEARS

“INVISIBLE GOVERNMENT”

AS DESCRIBED BY ELIHU ROOT

[The most important step taken by the recent convention engaged in the work of writing anew the constitution of the State of New York was the decision in favor of concentrated and responsible executive authority. The plan for bringing this about is to reduce the number of elective State officers, and to group the great number (said to be 152) of existing departments, commissions, and agencies into a series of seventeen compact groups, each one headed by a responsible official, with the Governor at the center of power.]

The most important and interesting speech made in the convention was in defense and advocacy of this great project of reform. It was delivered on August 30, by the president of the convention, the Hon. Elihu Root. The first part of it was devoted to a history of the demand for this change, from the time when it was first advocated by Governor Hughes down to its recent endorsement by conventions of all the leading political parties. The second half was a description of the way in which New York State had been governed by party leaders, so-called “bosses,” during the forty years of Mr. Root’s intimate acquaintance with contemporary politics and government.

This part of the address is so remarkable for its frankness and its earnest plea for democracy and a proper system of State government, that we are glad to give it place in our pages. Mr. Root’s reference to his expected retirement to his country home at Clinton affected the convention deeply. Not only is there great respect for his trained talents as statesman and publicist, but a steadily increasing desire for his judgment and experience in the guidance of our national affairs. At no moment in his distinguished career has he been so well qualified to serve the country in issues of large moment as he is to-day.—THE EDITOR.]

MR. CHAIRMAN, there never was a reform in administration in this world which did not have to make its way against the strong feeling of good, honest men, concerned in existing methods of administration, and who saw nothing wrong. Never! It is no impeachment to a man’s honesty, his integrity, that he thinks the methods that he is familiar with and in which he is engaged are all right. But you cannot make any improvement in this world without overriding the satisfaction that men have in the things as they are, and of which they are a contented and successful part. I say that the growth, extension, general acceptance of this principle shows that all these experienced politicians and citizens in all these Conventions felt that the people of the State saw something wrong in our State government, and we are here charged with a duty, not of closing our eyes, but of opening them, and seeing, if we can, what it was that was wrong.

Now, anybody can see that all these 152 outlying agencies, big and little, lying around loose, accountable to nobody, spending all the money they could get, violate every principle of economy, of efficiency, of the proper transaction of business. Everyone can see that all around us are political organizations carrying on the business of government, that have learned their lesson from the great business organizations which have been so phenomenally successful in recent years.

The governments of our cities: Why, twenty years ago, when James Bryce wrote his “American Commonwealth,” the government of American cities was a byword and a shame for Americans all over the world. Heaven be thanked, the government of our cities has now gone far toward redeeming itself and us from that disgrace, and the government of American cities to-day is in the main far superior to the government of American States. I challenge contradiction to that statement. How has it been reached? How have our cities been lifted up from the low grade of incompetency and corruption on which they stood when the “American Commonwealth” was written? It has been done by applying the principles of this bill to city government, by giving power to the men elected by the people to do the things for which they were elected. So I say it is quite plain that that is not all. It is not all.

I am going to discuss a subject now that goes back to the beginning of the political life of the oldest man in this Convention, and one to which we cannot close our eyes, if we keep the obligations of our oath. We talk about the government of the Constitution. We have spent many days in discussing the powers of this and that and the other officer. What is the government of this State? What has it been during the forty years of my acquaintance with it? The government of the Constitution? Oh, no; not half the time, or half way. When I ask what

do the people find wrong in our State government, my mind goes back to those periodic fits of public rage in which the people rouse up and tear down the political leader, first of one party and then of the other party. It goes on to the public feeling of resentment against the control of party organizations, of both parties and of all parties.

Now, I treat this subject in my own mind not as a personal question to any man. — I am talking about the system. From the days of Fenton, and Conkling, and Arthur and Cornell, and Platt, from the days of David B. Hill, down to the present time the government of the State has presented two different lines of activity, one of the constitutional and statutory officers of the State, and the other of the party leaders,—they call them party bosses. They call the system,—I don't coin the phrase, I adopt it because it carries its own meaning,—the system they call "invisible government." For I don't remember how many years, Mr. Conkling was the supreme ruler in this State; the Governor did not count, the legislatures did not count; comptrollers and secretaries of state and what not, did not count. It was what Mr. Conkling said, and in a great outburst of public rage he was pulled down.

Then Mr. Platt ruled the State; for nigh upon twenty years he ruled it. It was not the Governor; it was not the Legislature; it was not any elected officers; it was Mr. Platt. And the capitol was not here; it was at 49 Broadway; Mr. Platt and his lieutenants. It makes no difference what name you give, whether you call it Fenton or Conkling or Cornell or Arthur or Platt, or by the names of men now living. The ruler of the State during the greater part of the forty years of my acquaintance with the State government has not been any man authorized by the Constitution or by the law, and, sir, there is throughout the length and breadth of this State a deep and sullen and long-continued resentment at being governed thus by men not of the people's choosing. The party leader is elected by no one, accountable to no one, bound by no oath of office, removable by no one. Ah! My friends here have talked about this bill's creating an autocracy. The word points with admirable facility the very opposite reason for the bill. It is to destroy autocracy and restore power so far as may be to the men elected by the people, accountable to the people, removable by the people. I don't criticize the men of the invisible government. How can I? I have known them all, and among them have been some of my

dearest friends. I can never forget the deep sense of indignation that I felt in the abuse that was heaped upon Chester A. Arthur, whom I honored and loved, when he was attacked because he held the position of political leader. But it is all wrong. It is all wrong that a government not authorized by the people should be continued superior to the government that is authorized by the people.

How is it accomplished? How is it done? Mr. Chairman, it is done by the use of patronage, and the patronage that my friends on the other side of this question have been arguing and pleading for in this Convention is the power to continue that invisible government against that authorized by the people. Everywhere, sir, that these two systems of government co-exist, there is a conflict day by day, and year by year, between two principles of appointment to office, two radically opposed principles. The elected officer or the appointed officer, the lawful officer who is to be held responsible for the administration of his office, desires to get men into the different positions of his office who will do their work in a way that is creditable to him and his administration. Whether it be a president appointing a judge, or a governor appointing a superintendent of public works, whatever it may be, the officer wants to make a success, and he wants to get the man selected upon the ground of his ability to do the work.

How is it about the boss? What does the boss have to do? He has to urge the appointment of a man whose appointment will consolidate his power and preserve the organization. The invisible government proceeds to build up and maintain its power by a reversal of the fundamental principle of good government, which is that men should be selected to perform the duties of the office; and to substitute the idea that men should be appointed to office for the preservation and enhancement and power of the political leader. The one, the true one, looks upon appointment to office with a view to the service that can be given to the public. The other, the false one, looks upon appointment to office with a view to what can be gotten out of it. Gentlemen of the Convention, I appeal to your knowledge of facts.

Every one of you knows that what I say about the use of patronage under the system of invisible government is true. Louis Marshall told us the other day about the appointment of wardens in the Adirondacks, hotel-keepers and people living there, to render no

service whatever. They were appointed not for the service that they were to render to the State; they were appointed for the service they were to render to promote the power of a political organization. Mr. Chairman, we all know that the halls of this capitol swarm with men during the session of the Legislature on pay day. A great number, seldom here, rendering no service, are put on the payrolls as a matter of patronage, not of service, but of party patronage. Both parties are alike; all parties are alike. The system extends through all. Ah, Mr. Chairman, that system finds its opportunity in the division of powers, in a six-headed executive, in which, by the natural workings of human nature there shall be opposition and discord and the playing of one force against the other, and so, when we refuse to make one Governor elected by the people the real chief executive, we make inevitable the setting up of a chief executive not selected by the people, not acting for the people's interest, but for the selfish interest of the few who control the party, whichever party it may be. Think for a moment of what this patronage system means.

How many of you are there who would be willing to do to your private client, or customer, or any private trust, or to a friend or neighbor, what you see being done to the State of New York every year of your lives in the taking of money out of her treasury without service? We can, when we are in a private station, pass on without much attention to inveterate abuses. We can say to ourselves, I know it is wrong, I wish it could be set right; it cannot be set right, I will do nothing. But here, here, we face the duty, we cannot escape it, we are bound to do our work, face to face, in clear recognition of the truth, unpalatable, deplorable as it may be, and the truth is that what the unerring instinct of the democracy of our State has seen in this government is that a different standard of morality is applied to the conduct of affairs of State than that which is applied in private affairs. I have been told forty times since this Convention met that you cannot change it. We can try, can't we?

I deny that we cannot change it. I repel that cynical assumption which is born of the lethargy that comes from poisoned air during all these years. I assert that this perversion of democracy, this robbing democracy of its virility, can be changed as truly as the

system under which Walpole governed the commons of England, by bribery, as truly as the atmosphere which made the *credit mobilier* scandal possible in the Congress of the United States has been blown away by the force of public opinion. We cannot change it in a moment, but we can do our share. We can take this one step toward, not robbing the people of their part in government, but toward robbing an irresponsible autocracy of its indefensible and unjust and undemocratic control of government, and restoring it to the people to be exercised by the men of their choice and their control.

Mr. Chairman, this Convention is a great event in the life of every man in this room. A body which sits but once in twenty years to deal with the fundamental law of the State deals not only for the present but for the future, not only by its results but by its example. Opportunity knocks at the door of every man in this assemblage, an opportunity which will never come again to most of us. While millions of men are fighting and dying for their countries across the ocean, while government is become serious, sober, almost alarming in its effect upon the happiness of the lives of all that are dearest to us, it is our inestimable privilege to do something here in moving our beloved State along the pathway towards better and purer government, a more pervasive morality and a more effective exercise of the powers of government which preserve the liberty of the people. When you go back to your homes and review the record of the summer, you will find in it cause for your children and your children's children, who will review the Convention of 1915 as we have been reviewing the work of the preceding Conventions, to say, my father, my grandfather, helped to do this work for our State.

Mr. Chairman, there is a plain old house in the Oneida hills, overlooking the valley of the Mohawk, where truth and honor dwelt in my youth. When I go back, as I am about to go, to spend my declining years, I mean to go with the feeling that I have not failed to speak and to act here in accordance with the lessons I learned there from the God of my fathers. God grant that this opportunity for service to our country and our State may not be neglected by any of the men for whom I feel so deep a friendship in this Convention.

FRENCH CHARACTER UNDER TEST

AN AMERICAN'S OBSERVATIONS

BY DALLAS D. L. MCGREW

(Of the American Ambulance in France)

WHY should it surprise us, Americans, that the conduct of France in this war is so magnificent and so modest? Can it be that America has misunderstood the character of her great neighbor, that she has stupidly underestimated the temper which for centuries has flowered into a splendid history of ideals and achievement?

It would begin to seem likely. Some of us have attempted to explain it by vague talk of the regeneration of a decadent people by the purifying fire of war. But those of us who have been privileged to see the French on trial know the hypothesis to be unsound: France is unchanged. Our cherished tradition of the "mercurial Latin" of France, his instability, excitability, and hysterical lightness, vanishes into the fog of misapprehension out of which it came. We have to abandon all that folly in the face of the facts.

Consider for a moment the truths that are common knowledge. France has moved steadily forward through the centuries, driven always by the irresistible pressure of love for personal liberty, to a final expression of that trait in the form of her government. We are nearly related to France both by sympathy of principle and by our common history. Even before France had established popular government, its fundamental ideas had been laid down in Montesquieu's great book for the guidance of our forebears, and we know that his injunctions were followed. And his people felt so deeply in the matter,—for they hated the oppressive principles from which we were striving to free ourselves,—that they sent us active help in the work of establishing our own republic. Incidentally, let us not deceive ourselves about the value of that assistance. In General Upton's "Military Policy of the United States" we find this enlightening comment on the part played by France in our Revolutionary War:

We find that but two military events had a direct bearing upon the expulsion of the British. One of these was the capture of Burgoyne; the other that of Cornwallis—an event which was only made possible by the coöperation of a French army and a French fleet.

A century later France made a serious political blunder, and in our country her defeat seems to have been accepted as proof of her deterioration. But we ignore the fact that France paid a huge money indemnity so fast that the influx of cash pretty nearly ruined the financial equilibrium of the victor; a couple of years after the Franco-Prussian war the bank rate in Berlin was more than double the Paris rate. So France did not settle regretfully down into cowed penury; the inherent strength was there, and she became the world's model in thrift,—a very cool proceeding for a "beaten" nation,—and inaugurated a system of national education in team-play. At the beginning of the present war not only were millions of well-nurtured Frenchmen trained to arms, but the French gold reserve was quite the biggest in the world.

France did not expect war at this time. She believed it to be an impossibility, and admits that she was unprepared, but the ancient principles showed themselves again, and, as always before, the nation was ready to make the supreme sacrifice for her ideal of freedom, ungrudgingly and without an outcry.

WE HAVE MISJUDGED THE FRENCH PEOPLE

Why, then, have we passively accepted the dogma that France is unstable, light, and immoral? Seen in the brilliant light of her intellectual and economic accomplishment, the thesis seems to carry on its face the clumsy thumb-prints of the lout who has thrust it upon us. Too often, indeed, has America been represented to Europe by the half-educated person who is blinded to everything but the obvious by the fumes of his

burning money. Having seen nothing but what he can buy, he comes back with his gross defamation. And apparently we have swallowed whole this calumny of the French, as fair as would be an estimate of American character based on a drunken experience of ten blocks of Broadway. We ought to see that our splendid gullibility has dethroned our vaunted shrewdness.

It must be admitted that some of the French writers have taken no pains to remove the stigma; they have made books to sell to lewd foreigners. But these books give no truer idea of France than do some of our "best sellers," which describe America as the slime-pot of crooked business, give a true picture of the realities in our country.

As a brilliant Frenchwoman says in a letter: "War has filed off the rust,—the metal can be seen." The churches are filled with devout people who go quietly out to their posts in the great national task; current literature has shed the shell of frivolity that hid its strong tissue of seriousness and power; acrid political life has sweetened into unity. France is not reborn: war has simply revealed the true France.

And the Frenchman of 1915 is the Frenchman of the last half thousand years. True, he fights for his home, his country, but his main battle is for civilization as he has exemplified it and as much of the rest of the world understands and desires it. The ideals that have made French history and civilization are the very ideals that steel the hearts of the French who to-day maintain the barrier across Western Europe. And they do their work with a precision, a scientific neatness, an absence of confusion and excitement that would astonish no one who knew the power of the people, but which our ignorance finds amazing.

FRANCE UNITED, CALM, DETERMINED

For five months I lived with the modern Frenchman. I ate his rations,—and good food it is,—I slept in his barracks, I read his books and his letters, and I talked with him and with his family. Usually he was wounded, but there were others, old men and boys, officers and soldiers, wives, widows, and parents, work-people and managers and the farmer folk in the back country. Nowhere was there a sign of hysteria, never a gleam of unsteadiness. On the contrary, as the months labored from winter into spring and summer, the cool determination to go through with the dreadful task hardened and crystallized. France is a unit.

There is no wailing of the women; they are proud of the steadfast courage of their men. The small boys seriously assume the unaccustomed duties of their elders and perform them with true French thoroughness. The facts are not blinked, and the whole nation is working to keep life alive.

Truly the calm judgment, the clear vision of this intellectually honest people is its outstanding characteristic. The national watchword is the saying of the great Joffre: "Nibble them." In half of France I met only two men who underestimated the enemy. Both of them were prosperous bachelors,—almost unique Frenchmen who had no immediate family connection with the conflict. And over our coffee they spoke boastfully, saying that it would be easy for their army to crush back the "savages" across the Rhine. And of course they were both civilians. Officers and men know that the enemy is strong, and the government makes no ill-judged attempt to hide the facts from the citizens by a blundering censorship. That government is taking no risk of lulling the country into a false sense of security and optimism.

An artillery lieutenant rode in my ambulance from the hospital to the station on his painful way back to the front he loved. Said he: "For five months my 155's (six-inch guns) have been pounding away at them. They don't move; they are hard to root out, '*ces cochons la*,' they are very, very strong." Once in a while in the mountains a man would say that the enemy seemed to be a bit demoralized; that they were coming out of their trenches and begging to be taken prisoners. But always the caution was added: "It's of small importance. These are but a few of them [I saw them come in from the lines, radiant with delight because they had escaped from the devil-drudgery of their lot, into safety, kindness, and peace] and most of them are Alsatians who didn't want to fight against us anyway. The organization is not like that. It is magnificent in its strength."

THE RESULTS OF MILITARY TRAINING

And it is by unswerving, pitiless analysis of that strength that the modern French army is now,—in the opinion of many competent judges,—as efficient, up to the least detail, as any in the world. The foundation of training was there, but the organization has been built since the beginning of the war.

This one fact ought to teach us how unreasoning is our confounding of the issue

between universal military service and the justly dreaded horrors of militarism. France has compulsory service in the army, but no sane person can even suggest that the country suffers from militarism. We try unsuccessfully to twist the conditions to suit our prejudice, failing to see the obvious fact, that the ills of militarism flow not from the training system, but from a deeper spring. The army-training has taught the liberty-loving Frenchman the value of coöperation in every phase of national life, but it cannot plant in him that foreign thing, a lust for conquest.

But of course the training has given to the men of France a working familiarity with a practical manual of arms, and when the necessity burst upon the unready world, when the time came for France to defend her brand of civilization for mankind, the foundation was there on which to build a real army. There was no fever about it. The millions of France went about the work, calm, steady, inexorable, and facing all the facts. Strength and unity were there.

Moreover, this strength is not being wasted. In one year of war a hundred and forty general officers have slid quietly into retirement because they hadn't the skill to get full value for the lives they spent. The French officer holds his commission by sheer ability; he is a professional and knows his business. An officer of rank remarked to me: "In our army an officer is an officer, not the son of his father." And this particular man was of noble birth, as was the chauffeur of his car.

The French soldier, too, is a trained man, and intelligent to boot. He knows that he can place utter confidence in the skill and devotion of his officers; that his equipment is the very best, and he knows what is to be done. An American army observer who has seen and analyzed both the main forces in the Western field has arrived at a definition of their salient characteristics. He calls the German army a "magnificent bull, the embodiment of force, charging with head down and with shut eyes." But the French army he describes as "a great tiger, with eyes wide open, crouching for the spring." This man's trained intelligence perceived at once the great trait of the French,—clear vision.

Beyond that, indeed, lie the steadfastness, the calmness, and the firm, sturdy courage of the whole people,—of these "mercurial Latins."

One of them, a prosperous woman in a town not very far from the grumble of the guns, asked me for news of her husband.

Two shy, pretty children,—I remember that they bore the pleasant names of Renée and Marcel,—clung to the folds of her skirt. She was not hysterical, her voice didn't waver. She wanted to know that her man was doing his part well, simply that her children might be properly proud of their father and their nation.

There was another typical case, the huge, red Norman farmer who grew irrepressibly merry over our intimate discussion of farm affairs. He was too old to fight,—he did not look his sixty-five years,—but then his work was valuable to the army. The brave *poilus* must have good bread and cheese, and he could see to that better than another. "Monsieur could easily see that these fields were essential to the affair. All must help in teaching the lesson to those savages"—and his kindly eyes grew cold and terrible. A true Frenchman, his depths were plumbed and his speech ceased.

And the six urbane young lieutenants who stopped for a cigarette with me in the dawn will never quit my memory. Matter-of-fact, cool, and hard they were, although they knew that in half an hour's walk they would be facing death with their companies. You understand,—they knew the business of war; fighting held no mysteries for them save the ever wonderful exhilaration of perfect teamwork. But in spite of their certainty that not all of them could ever see another morning, instead of being excited or uneasy they were calm, clear-headed, even quietly humorous. Word had been sent to them the evening before in their trenches a few miles down the line, where they lived eight meters from the enemy, that they were needed in the detached battalion of their famous regiment. They were to replace their friends who had been killed that day, to lead their companies into more of the bloody work. Yet here they were strolling briskly and even merrily up to death. One young lieutenant, spruce and blond, who wore a new overcoat,—for dawn in the high mountains is cold even at the end of June,—stretched a steady hand to me for a light and noticed that there was no *galon* on his sleeve. He smiled and remarked that somebody might mistake him for a soldier. So he opened his rucksack, fished out the old coat and sewing-kit, ripped off the gold stripe and proceeded deftly to sew it to the new sleeve.

A few hours later he came back. He was walking smilingly beside the ammunition wagons which jolt their ghastly loads over the shell-torn roads from the danger zone of

the first-line *postes de secours*, or dressing stations, to the second-line stations. He seemed singularly jaunty, and reminded me gaily of our meeting that morning. "See," he laughed, "the old galon saved the arm. I wish I'd been a better tailor, it might have prevented this." "This," of course, was the splintered, soaking fragment that had sent him back. A moment later I heard him congratulating a tortured boy,—his shoulder had been thoroughly torn by a shell fragment that had wellnigh scalped him as well,—on his "fortunate escape"; no bones had been broken. "See this," said the officer, "if I had been but one step further along, the ball that touched me would have got home full in the chest. What luck!"

FORBEARANCE IN THE CAUSE OF CIVILIZATION

The intellectual honesty, scientific steadiness, and the firmness of the nation's determination to win, throw into high relief its generous adherence to the practise of civilization. My sympathies, naturally enough, have been enlisted by the qualities before unfamiliar to me, but which I have known under stress. This extraordinary generosity of the French wrung my heart. Time and again I asked officers and men why,—in the name of the national safety,—a clearly hostile section of that recently German territory was permitted to continue its active spy-work; why no revenge was taken for the three hundred wounded who were stabbed to death on the 26th of April on our famous mountain; why, in short, they didn't adopt the ruthless methods of their enemy. Invariably the reply was the same as that of the grey captain, who laid a kindly hand on my shoulder and said: "Young man, be calm. *We can't do it!* These civilians don't know yet, but they will learn under kindness and forbearance. We are not fighting for revenge but for civilization, and if we were to do these horrible things,—if it were possible for us to do them,—how should we differ from the exponents of the very principles against which we fight?"

This sounds to our less civilized comprehension like humane folly. But I am sure that it was not vain or intended to mislead, for officers told it me,—cool at table, and many a wounded man still sweating from the fight, has gasped out his conviction of the truth. For this ideal, at any rate, they are ready handsomely to give their lives. They practise the precepts of their sermon, for I have talked with wounded prisoners

and with the Alsatian civilians who make their gardens blossom and bear under the shadows of planes and shell-smoke, and with them there has been no French interference.

THE ALSATIANS

There is too much misunderstanding current concerning these native mountaineers, resulting partly from bias and partly from ignorance. They are, in fact, neither French nor German. To our ears their speech is a dreadful cacophony, and it is neither German nor French. They have enormous pride in their racial integrity and institutions, and their lovely country holds them fast by the heart-strings. Moreover, they are plentifully endowed with common sense. Many of them,—not of the colonized stock of the last forty years,—have told me that if they must choose between two over-lords, the choice must be for that government from which will flow the greatest tolerance and the least interference with themselves and with their native life. So it becomes plain that the French policy of *laissez vivre* is based on good psychology.

FRENCH GOOD-HUMOR

Another quality is evident in the Frenchman in the trenches that perhaps is not so surprising to us, even if we understand it no better than we understand his steadiness, his calmness, and the splendor of his physique, and that quality is his gay good-humor. During three months of the spring and summer my work lay with the Alpine troops. Everyone who has known the Midi knows that these children of southern sunlight have absorbed so much of their native element that they fairly radiate the warmth of kindness and the light of gaiety. Their mountains have endowed them with legs as big as trees and with chests like barrels,—none too roomy to house their great affectionate hearts. They are as naïve and frank as children, but the child cruelty that is familiar to us Anglo-Saxons has been mellowed out of them. For generations it has been their habit to take the sun of an afternoon in the streets of their cosy villages, and the present exigencies of military traffic seem to them merely an excellent opportunity to show a youthful delight in standing as still as possible in the middle of the road while the trucks, ambulances, and staff-cars thunder and whizz past. But their unfailing charm disarms annoyance.

When you have learned by experience their deep kindness and generosity you are staggered by the thought of what must have been

their experiences in this war to transform them into what they are, the "*diablos bleus*" who take no prisoners in battle. It is unnecessary to recite the ghoulis details of what they have suffered, the fact alone is enough. But after the relentless ardor of their fighting comes their amazing gaiety under the torture of wounds. Literally, they laugh at pain with a pride that is magnificent. Small wonder that the nation regards them affectionately as the *élite* of the whole army. Their bravery and their jaunty perfect skill would be enough to endear them to the amateur of manhood, but this merry suffering of their shattered bodies is heart-wringing. It is courage raised to the sublime.

Two instances from my recent experience adequately illustrate this trait. The ambulance skated in the slush of the mountain pass under a cold rain that beat through the canvas top. During the whole hour's ride, the three Alpines made merry on their stretchers inside. They sang, solo and chorus, not to bolster failing spirits,—each of them had a serious leg-wound,—but from sheer light-heartedness. At the rail-head clearing hospital the receiving officer asked his usual "Can your clients walk?" Before I could reply a bold voice came from behind the curtains. "Why not? We are real walkers, Alpines of the — Battalion. We've just done five hours of walking in two meters of snow up there!" And all three voices joined in a great laugh.

Another night I carried a stocky, middle-aged chasseur who grumbled and swore in his grey-streaked beard. Astonished, for it was the only sign of complaint I had met among them, I asked him the cause of his temper: had the bandage been displaced on his torn shoulder? His reply was gruff, and not until I held a light to his pipe did I perceive the twinkle in his deep-sunken eyes. "No. It is this execrable management. *Sacré nom!* But they ought not to have sent us old men against the youth of the Imperial Guard. Of course we drove them out of their trenches easily enough, but they should have given us spry youngsters to finish the job. Our legs are too old and stiff,—we couldn't catch them."

THE MOTHERS OF THE NATION

Finally let me tell you of the Widow Fardin, who sells delicious cheese in a village on the Moselle. I had not passed that way in a fortnight, and she had told me proudly of her two sons. The elder had been killed

in performing a feat that had brought him the high distinction of the *Medaille Militaire*. So her hopes had centered themselves on her younger son, a sergeant in the — Battalion of Alpines. Cheerfully I called her out into the sun and asked if she had any news of the boy. She replied sadly: "Yes, Monsieur, of bad news. He was killed the third of May. The first bullet that had touched him: clean through the head." His commandant had photographed the graves of the two brothers, side by side on the crest of the mountain, and had sent her the picture with all their effects.

I thought of what they had told me the day before of that cemetery, churned into fragments by a fresh bombardment,—modern artillery does not strike haphazard,—and I didn't tell her of it, for she told me that "when one can" she meant to search out their resting place, and by that time it will have been restored to holy quiet. "They died well." She spoke almost sternly: "They were all I had. A life of pain and effort to make a certain position for them: all wasted. But perhaps not all, for we many mothers of France don't give grudgingly: the world and its future mothers must be spared." She was splendidly brave, the Widow Fardin, but she choked very humanly and then finished quietly: "What will that William have to answer for!" And all this in the cool, aromatic dark of the big cheese-room on the Moselle.

When the mothers of a nation are like that, what becomes of our notions that the people are pale, effete, worn-out? If ever the chance presented itself to America to do justice to a friend in sore need of justice, it is here and now.

We must reject this cherished idea that has obscured our vision. We have thought that France is losing vitality because she does not display a fecundity prolific as that of rabbits or savages. Long since we accepted the theory that civilization limits population by the possibility of individual happiness and prosperity, and we must now recognize the fact that France is civilized in practise, not de-vitalized.

We know that like principles produce like results,—both nations have developed into republics,—but we have to learn that France is still France the strong, battling mightily and in perfect unity,—without advertising,—for what she considers the civilization of the world. France is as sound and clean as wheat.

AMERICAN BUSINESS TRANSFORMED BY THE WAR

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

IN the history of American business no chapter reads more like a fairy tale than that dealing with the events of the past year. No more rapid or complete transition from a state of dependence to one of independence, or from the "pauper to prince" condition, has ever occurred in any country.

A year ago the United States was worried by its debts to Europe, and apparently had no means of paying. The amount was from \$300,000,000 to \$400,000,000. England sent commissioners over here to tell us how it must be paid. The main argument was to pay in gold and pay quickly. American dollars were at a heavy discount, \$7 being required at one time to offset an English pound, against a normal \$4.86. Industries were closing. The numbers of unemployed taxed the organized efforts of all charity bodies. Savings banks were losing deposits at an alarming rate. Mortgages were being foreclosed on a scale almost unknown in the East. The stock exchanges were silent. There were several hundred thousand idle cars on the side-tracks of American railroads, and a proportionate number of idle engines. Money was "tight," and the banks in New York were much under their legal reserve requirements. Gold coin and gold certificates were being hoarded. Mines were shut down. Building operations were at a standstill. Even automobile sales dropped abruptly.

The reverse of nearly every one of these conditions obtains to-day. To pay our bills contracted before the war we sent \$110,000,000 gold abroad, most of it to Canada for account of the Bank of England. Not only has this amount been returned, but \$175,000,000 more. The depreciated dollars have been set on a pedestal. The merchant in China, the trader in South America, the importer out in India, and the neutral manufacturer of laces in Switzerland read the pulse of the world's exchanges in dollars where they used to make their diagnoses from the fluctuations of sterling. Never until the debt of Great Britain to the United States became so large in September had bills on

London sold at \$4.50, or at a discount of about $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Simultaneously exchange on Paris was 15 per cent. below normal, exchange on Berlin and Frankfurt even a little more depreciated, and Italian *lire* more than 20 per cent. under the rational figure.

THE INFLOW OF GOLD

From across the seven seas have been coming the argosies of the debtor nations, bringing their golden tribute to American shores. First of all, Canada paid back for English bills all of the gold she had taken in and some from her own stock. Then the Bank of France began to give up from its store, afterward the Bank of England. Then gold began to arrive at Pacific ports from the South African mines, from Australia, and New Zealand. Some even came in the form of Japanese yen, showing that the bottom of the bin was being reached. It came on liners that ran the submarine gauntlet, and on the fastest cruisers in the British navy. One of these crossed from Liverpool to Halifax in four and a half days. The last stage of the journey was in armored steel cars which ran in special trains from the Canadian port to New York, where the treasure was deposited in the vaults of the sub-treasury. Having taken in \$275,000,000 this year, the United States is in possession of more than \$2,000,000,000 of the yellow metal, holding an amount in excess of that in the Bank of England, the Bank of France, and the Bank of Russia, and 25 per cent. more than that of all other European banks.

Again there are banking commissioners here to negotiate with our bankers and business men. But the trading positions are changed. It is to establish a credit in the United States, to adopt a *modus operandi* under which old debts and those about to be contracted can be paid, that the ablest men in the London and Paris circles of finance have come to this country. The shoe is on the other foot, and it has been pinching very severely of late. In July, Great Britain and France bought so much more of goods than

they sold that the trade balance against them was \$206,000,000. For the seven months ending with August 31, Great Britain's imports were \$1,615,000,000 greater than her exports, whereas the year before the excess was only \$765,000,00. Not all of this difference is owing the United States, but a large percentage of it is, and there is no likelihood that the proportions will decrease. This is why treasure ships are steadily steaming our way, and why loans, credits, or whatever form the present negotiations take, are necessary.

THE ADVANCE IN IRON AND STEEL

Last autumn the iron and steel trade of the country was so poor and the outlook so lean that the United States Steel Corporation could not earn much more than the full interest on its bonds, to say nothing of dividends on some \$870,000,000 of stock. So it first reduced and then passed the common stock dividend. For the three months ending September 30, this year, it has earned four times as much as it did in the December quarter; and its present revenues indicate record monthly returns before the end of 1915. In August, pig-iron production in the United States was at the rate of 35,000,000 tons per annum, compared with 18,000,000 tons in January. Eight months ago the iron and steel mills of the country were running at about 40 per cent. of capacity, and now at nearly 95 per cent. With this increased production has come a rise in prices. For instance, last September pig iron ranged from \$14.00 to \$14.90 a ton, and now it is \$16 to \$17,—an advance of about 14 per cent. Billets that were \$21.00 a ton are now \$24.00 to \$24.50. Wire rods were \$26.50, and today \$29.00. Steel bars and steel plates are up 12 to 15 per cent., and steel scrap and iron rails, which were almost unsalable at \$12 to \$14 per ton, are quickly marketed at \$14.00 to \$18.50 a ton. The payrolls in the Pittsburgh, Pa.; Youngstown, Ohio, and Chicago districts are the largest in the history of the steel industry.

The recovery in iron and steel has meant an enormous amount to all collateral lines. Ore is moving down the lakes in quantities never before approached. The coal fields of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Maryland, and Kentucky are producing in excess of the carrying capacity of the railroads entering those districts. This affects favorably every distributor of merchandise, every power plant, traction line, and bank in the neighborhood. It takes the corner grocery store a

long time to feel the effect of full employment following a period of complete or partial industrial paralysis, and even longer is the railroad in noticing the benefits of a rising purchasing power among wage-earners. This change was visible in the East in June, and three months later had begun to spread to nearly every part of the Eastern States.

A YEAR OF GREAT CROPS

The West will gain momentum from its own bumper crops. It was not because of any poverty of resources that it bought conservatively last year, when the biggest yield of wheat on record brought the highest average prices since the Civil War. The East cautioned the West then to save its profits and reserve the period of spending until the financial outlook in New York was clearer. To-day the farmer is finishing the harvest of a crop of wheat measuring nearly a billion bushels, of oats almost a billion and a half bushels, and of hay many thousands of tons in excess of other years, and has the prospect of three billion bushels of corn. His prices, to be sure, are down. Wheat is nearly 25 per cent. lower because the European countries are buying as they consume and not to accumulate, and because, too, the crops of other countries are better than they were. The world's yield is estimated by Beerbohm at 4,148,000,000 bushels; and in this gain of 466,000,000 bushels over 1914 Russia figures for an increase of 112,000,000 bushels and England's colonies for 204,000,000 bushels. So it is evident that the demand for American foodstuffs this fiscal year will be much under that of the year just closed.

WAR ORDERS AS A FACTOR IN PROSPERITY

In this review of trade conditions as they appear to us to-day the effects of war orders are the striking feature. Present prosperity is based largely on the necessities of the Allies for food, clothing, the paraphernalia of war, and the means of winning battles. In the twelve months to June 30 last, the shipments of what may be properly classed as materials of war represented a money value of \$283,347,569. The cost of the same exports in the year previous was \$56,393,245. So we sold to Europe,—and chiefly to Great Britain, France, Italy, and Russia,—because of the war, \$227,000,000 more than in 1914. This was exclusive of breadstuffs, which were \$573,823,676, as against \$165,000,000 in 1914.

The value and volume of the war shipments are indicated in the following table:

	Value		Quantity	
	1915	1914	1915	1914
Horses	\$64,046,534	\$ 3,388,819	289,340	22,776
Mules	12,726,143	690,974	65,788	4,883
Commercial autos	39,140,682	1,181,611	13,996	794
Shoes	17,679,931	10,117,965	6,972,366 pairs	4,452,840
Harness & saddles	17,460,519	786,455		
Wearing apparel	53,762,110	12,363,143		
Explosives	41,476,188	6,272,197	15,399,479 lbs.	15,453,916
Firearms	9,474,947	3,442,297		
Horseshoes	2,001,258	98,835	29,157,243 lbs.	2,723,806
Metal machinery	28,162,968	14,011,359		
Barbed wire....	7,416,289	4,039,590	330,605,238 lbs.	178,696,730
Totals.....	\$283,347,569	\$56,393,245		

¹ Dynamite and gunpowder; shrapnel not included.

In the month of July the exports of munitions were valued at \$50,000,000, and they were fully as large in August. In September there was a decline in the movement. It is conservative to place the deliveries of munitions, transports, clothing, etc., since the war began, at \$400,000,000 to \$450,000,000. This is about what the United States pays Europe annually on tourist credits, alien remittances, and freights.

The actual shipments are only one-quarter to one-third the value of the contracts negotiated here. One can sit down with paper and pencil and in a few minutes foot up a bill of \$1,250,000,000 to \$1,500,000,000 that the Allies will have to pay here in the next nine or twelve months, on materials already spoken for. Two concerns alone, the Bethlehem Steel Company and the Canadian Car and Foundry Company, have contracts for more than \$500,000,000. A dozen corporations have taken orders for rifles, shrapnel, high-explosive shells, tools, cars, locomotives, rails, powder, and chemicals that will average \$25,000,000 to \$40,000,000.

The situation at the end of September is that most of the large munition-makers have reached their plant capacity, and the new business is being distributed among hundreds of small manufacturing units. A tour of the New England and Middle Western States will reveal the fact that many little factories that have been closed for months and perhaps years,—their own special industry having been depressed or replaced in the economic changes of the century,—are reopening as supplies agents of the armies "somewhere in France."

One of the most striking features of the whole war trade is the way it has revitalized languishing corporations. Here is one that a year ago faced bankruptcy after a hard struggle against a rise in raw materials or

advances in wages or foreign competition, and here another whose dividends had been reduced and then passed, and whose bonded interest was not being earned. To-day they are making enough from current profits to retire bonds from cash resources and declare enormous dividends. We know of one tool manufacturer in New England, whose previous maximum

monthly output was \$200,000, now making deliveries worth \$1,000,000 in a like period. It is claimed that in Connecticut the war orders have reached a value of \$500,000,000. The brass manufactories in the Naugatuck Valley, which at full capacity consume 725,000,000 pounds of copper per annum, are working at full tilt. The city of Bridgeport has increased its population by 25,000, mostly all active workers at high wages. Its savings bank deposits have risen 45 per cent., while the freight movement into and out of the city increased 100 per cent. between January and June. Buildings to cover armies of 10,000 to 20,000 skilled operators are being erected by makers of rifles, machine-guns, and ammunition. Is it any wonder that the securities of these concerns should have increased in value some fourfold and some tenfold, that Bethlehem Steel common which could not be sold a year ago at \$30 a share should now be quoted at \$350, or the stock of the Winchester Arms at \$3000 a share? At one time the Bethlehem Steel Company was turning out daily more shrapnel than all of the munition plants in Great Britain. Even at its present rate of output it would take it two months and a half to supply the shells used by the French in their steady bombardment of the German position in the Argonne Valley in the first fifteen days of September.

If the Russian Government were to-day in possession of the 14,000,000 shells contracted for in Canada, and the several million rifles now being made in Pittsburgh, its armies would not have been compelled to retreat out of Poland at such a pace or have been reduced to warfare with iron clubs. Deliveries on these shells and rifles will not begin until next April.

The admission was made in London recently that after the war "the United States

will have all the cream and England the skimmed milk." This was another way of saying that though already the wealthiest nation in the world the resources of this country would be relatively much greater, compared with those of every other country, than they were prior to July 1, 1914. There is one strong element in the United States that sincerely believes American wealth will be the envy and irritation of Europe, and that to hold what we have won in a material way we will have to fight for it. The obvious thing is that the wealth is here, that we are on the point of lending probably \$1,000,000,000 to Great Britain and France, and that for the first time in financial history the debt will be paid off at maturity in dollars instead of in the customary gold of the British realm.

What of business after the war, or even when it becomes evident that definite peace proposals are in sight? Will the prosperity now so marked in industries catering to war supplies collapse, or will there be a continued demand for these materials to replace exhausted stocks abroad and to create a surplus for home defense? What are to be the economic reactions of the war, as on labor, immigration, and the trend of political thought? Will our present profits be absorbed in the greater costs to come,—when Europe faces her war debts, perhaps in effect repudiates them, and certainly enters an era of enforced economy to repair the wastage of the battlefield?

In the early days of the war, before it was possible to obtain a perspective on any phase of it, the feeling in this country was that the conflict would be of brief duration, but that the expense of it would be so great as to compel enormous exports from Great Britain and Germany particularly to pay the price of it, and that the goods shipped would come into competition with American products at very low prices.

To-day the outlook is different. The human loss has been so great, especially in Germany and in France, that it will take months, if not years, to bring about an industrial reorganization that would be able to cope with our manufacturers. This takes into account the factor of tremendous efficiency on the part of the workman who will be available at the end of the war, and the inventions which have been one of the few compensations of the war. The destruction of property has been on a scale so enormous that the replacement requirements will lift exports of iron and steel and of railroad

equipment above the present level, and sustain them there for several years to come.

Much as it is to be regretted, the profitable experience of munition-makers in the past year will keep alive the jingo element in the United States, and Washington will undoubtedly be conscious in the future of the presence of strong "lobbies" made up of representatives of these interests. The stock of one concern, which has advanced from about \$20 to nearly \$600 a share, has been affected almost entirely by the prospect of American war contracts. Not a few of the plants erected for the manufacture of heavy armament, rifles, and ammunition are built to stand years after the present war is over. Mechanics are being trained for a life work and not for an emergency situation.

LABOR PROBLEMS

As to the labor outlook: Some phases of this have been plainly outlined during the summer, and it only remains to be seen whether they are to be emphasized outside the circles of munition manufacturers. The eight-hour day has become popular, and has been conceded under pressure of large profits on quick deliveries of arms and ammunition. The agitation to extend it to every industry is silently but forcefully going on, and any business man who does not reckon with it will injure his chances of success in the next few years. It is a significant fact that among the shrewdest merchants and manufacturers of the day there is more hesitancy because of inability to read the outlook from the standpoint of economic readjustments than from anxiety as to how the fortunes of war may go. If, under the compulsion of a famine in raw materials, scientists are to draw from the air the elements that were formerly the basis of prosperous businesses, if under the lack of operatives inventors are to create machines that will depose men from their trades, if there is to be a revolution in domestic science, if after fighting until exhausted the peoples of Europe buy nothing except what is absolutely required for sustenance and just enough clothing to cover and keep them warm,—then certain established industries must obviously sicken and decay. As yet no one can foresee the extent of this exhaustion, though we do know that the war is now costing the Allies nearly \$50,000,000 a day and the Teutonic alliance probably \$15,000,000 to \$20,000,000, and that England, France, and Germany are \$16,000,000,000 deeper in debt than they were twelve months ago.

NEWFOUNDLAND'S RECRUITS, ON SEA AND LAND

BY P. T. McGRATH

Honorary Secretary of the Newfoundland Finance Committee

NEWFOUNDLAND, while the oldest, is at the same time the smallest of Britain's colonies, having only 250,000 people spread over an area of 42,000 miles, or that of New York State. Depending, as these people do, on one industry alone, fishing, for their support, they could do but little to help their motherland, yet their record for the past twelve months is not inferior to Canada's, though by reason of their small numbers the work of the Newfoundlanders has attracted but little attention from the great world.

Nearly twenty years ago the British Admiralty recognized the value of the Newfoundland fisherman as an adjunct to the Imperial navy, and established there a branch of the naval reserve. It was limited to six hundred men, owing to difficulties of organization, and this force was soon recruited. A drill ship, the *Calyпсо*, was established at St. John's and the force permanently embodied, and carried on from year to year. Curiously, the only active service seen by the Newfoundland reservists before the present war was in alliance with Germany, when British and German warships bombarded the Venezuelan coast some years ago in a dispute with President Castro. When the present struggle began the Newfoundland reservists were scattered widely on the annual summer fishing campaign. Some were operating from Massachusetts, and others on Farthest Labrador, but all hurried back and within a fortnight the whole active strength was available. Then the colonial government undertook to double the strength and speedily had 1200 men available, all of whom are now on active service, while further enlistment still continues.

NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERMEN IN THE NAVY

Gratifying reports were made by the Admiralty regarding these men,—their discipline, efficiency, and enthusiasm being noteworthy. They have been employed in all

classes of ships from superdreadnoughts to submarines, and have proved their quality everywhere. Some fought in Sturdee's squadron against von Spee at the Falkland Islands; others figured with Beatty in the North Sea fight when the *Bluecher* was sunk; still others were in the *Queen Elizabeth* and her consorts in the Dardanelles, and some sustained wounds in the early fighting there. Most, however, are now being utilized to crew mine-sweepers and submarine-chasers, for which their experience in small crafts, keen vision, and skill in boat work render them specially useful; and recently the Admiralty has intimated that it will take all the naval reservists the colony can supply. The year has not passed for this force without its share of losses. In the total loss last winter of the armed auxiliary cruisers *Viknor*, *Clan Macnaughton*, and *Bayano* more than sixty Newfoundland reservists perished, this representing more fatalities, proportionately, than Canada has yet sustained in all the land fighting her men have done since hostilities began.

A DEMOCRATIC LAND FORCE

Besides this naval contribution, however, Newfoundland also undertook to raise five hundred soldiers, although having no military organization, since the island is so law-abiding that one hundred constables are the sole force needed to maintain order, the record being but one murder in ten years for the past half-century. Still, the spirit of the young people was such that within a fortnight 500 men were enrolled, the city of St. John's alone supplying 430 of these, although the population is but 30,000, and it was already represented in the naval reserve by nearly 300 others. The offers for the land force continued so great that gradually, month by month, the force grew until, at this writing, practically 2000 men have been secured, all of whom but the last 250 have been sent across the ocean.

The force was, perhaps, the most demo-

cratic of the many representing the British Empire in the present crisis. Young men of every class enlisted as privates. No influence could procure a commission as an officer, and the only such named were those who already held rank in some cadet brigades connected with the colleges at St. John's. The Imperial authorities were asked to appoint a British officer of experience to command the contingent on its arrival in England, whither the first 500 men were sent with the big Canadian convoy one year ago, in the Newfoundland steamer *Floriselle* with a Newfoundland captain and crew, other companies of 250 being despatched at intervals later as they were sufficiently drilled. This English commandant was empowered to select from the ranks the men to receive commissions, and such appointments were ratified by the Governor of the colony, Sir Walter Davidson, who became colonel of the regiment. The battalion enjoyed the signal honor, during part of its training in the Old Country, of being chosen to garrison Edinburgh Castle, the first non-Scotch regiment ever within its walls. It has recently been despatched to Egypt to be acclimatized for the Dardanelles campaign, and out of the reserve companies and those now training at St. John's it is hoped shortly to embody a second battalion.

NATIVE-BORN VOLUNTEERS

Not the least valuable circumstance connected with these two forces, as showing the spirit of the people, is that they are entirely native-born. Newfoundland has virtually no immigration whatever, and depends on the natural increase for its growth of population. Over 99 per cent. are native-born and these proportions are fully maintained in its naval and military contingents. Out of 1203 naval reservists enlisted up to the middle of August only four were born outside the colony, and out of 1750 soldiers enlisted in the same period only forty-seven were non-native. This is in marked contrast to Canada, where a large proportion of the enlistment is of men migrating there in late years from the British Isles; and the inevitable losses of the war will fall with special severity upon Newfoundland, especially because four months before it began she lost 250 of her seal fishers, many of them naval

reservists, in the ice-floe disasters of March, 1914.

WORK OF THE CITIZENS' COMMITTEE

Another noteworthy fact regarding the Newfoundland enlistment is that it has been accomplished without any cost whatever. When war broke out the colonial premier, Sir Edward Morris, in pledging Newfoundland's participation, undertook that no suspicion of political manipulation should be associated therewith, and, accordingly, the whole movement was placed under control of a Patriotic Association, with the Governor as chairman and representative citizens as members, its committees enlisting, training, equipping, and despatching all these forces. A sum of \$1,000,000 was raised for military purposes and entrusted to a finance committee, composed of the leading business men of St. John's, with absolute powers as to its disposal; which committee has been disbursing it on strictly commercial principles.

The same committee is expending a Patriotic Fund of \$100,000, raised by public subscription, to assist the wives and families of the soldiers and sailors sent from the colony, the principle adopted being to maintain these on, proportionately, the same scale of living as when the breadwinners were at home. Finally, this committee has also undertaken, at the government's request, the duties of a War Pension Board, so that this prolific source of political jugglery elsewhere may be kept free from such influence in Newfoundland. Another committee of experienced citizens has equipped the men, and seen good value given in every instance; all supplies being purchased by contract, and, wherever possible, made locally so that the employment might be given to the people of the colony. Similar committees have supervised training and transport, and all the work of these committees has been given free, and the only outlay incurred has been that for clerk who acts as paymaster for the regiment and a stenographer as an assistant. The entire payment under this head for the past year did not exceed \$1500. Finally, the railroad and steamboat companies have carried all volunteers to headquarters, and physicians in every village have examined them, both without cost.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

AMERICAN MAGAZINES

IF there is in this country any marked abatement of interest in the great war the editors of the magazines do not seem to have found it out. In the October numbers of five standard American periodicals topics directly or indirectly related to the war have a prominent place, in two instances, at least, absorbing nearly half the contents of the magazine.

In the *Yale Review* (quarterly), which within the past four years has made for itself a place in the front rank of our serious periodical literature, there are five articles suggested by the conflict in Europe. Professor L. T. Jacks, of Oxford, writes on "Hatred—And a Possible Sequel"; Mr. Henry D. Sedgwick on "Italy and the War"; Morris Hillquit on "The War and International Socialism"; Mr. Alexander D. Noyes, of the New York *Evening Post*, on "The Economic Aftermath"; and George N. Tricoche, formerly an artillery officer in the French army, on "Compulsory Service in the United States." The last-named article is to be especially commended to those misguided Americans who have confounded compulsory service with militarism.

The *Atlantic Monthly* follows its series of letters from the mistress of "The Little House on the Marne," from which we are making excerpts on page 486 of this number, with some letters written home by a missionary in the German Kamerun. Dr. Kuno Francke's article on "The True Germany" is a reply to those criticisms which have left the impression that the Germany of to-day is a perversion of her former self. Professor Francke admits, however, that there is a grain of truth in the assertion that Germany has over-reached herself, and that, so far as this is the case, she bears her part of the guilt of having conjured up the present world calamity. In saying this, Professor Francke refers not to the German policy of armament, but to "a spirit of superciliousness" which has developed, especially during the past twenty-five years, in the ruling classes of Germany. This spirit, according to Pro-

fessor Francke, led to the isolation that finally brought on the war.

The October number also contains Mr. Alfred G. Gardiner's character sketches of the British Admiralty, besides an essay by Simeon Strunsky entitled "A Year of War's Emotion." The September number had four important war articles in addition to the Marne letters.

The star feature of *Scribner's* is an article by Captain X, of the French staff, about General Joffre, the victor of the Marne, the man and the soldier. This is a soldier's story well supplied with military maps showing how the battle of the Marne was fought and won. Mrs. Edith Wharton continues her account of her experiences in the trenches and in bombarded towns. The October instalment is entitled "In Lorraine and the Vosges." Mr. E. Alexander Powell, who wrote vividly in the September number of what he had seen on the French front, relates this month his experiences among the British fighters.

In the *Century* Mr. T. Lothrop Stoddard tells the inside story of "How Italy Went to War." Another article of interest in this October number is Mr. Lincoln G. Valentine's account of recent Nicaraguan history containing a plea for America's championship of liberty and union in the Central American Republics.

Harper's for October is one of the very few American magazines that advertise no special war contributions. Its opening feature is an account by Donald B. Macmillan, the Arctic explorer, of his expedition in search of the new land that Peary and others have long believed to exist and which was christened Crocker Land. Professor Albert Bushnell Hart takes pleasure in exposing certain famous liars who have helped to make the written history of America. Mr. W. D. Howells contributes his impressions of picturesque Charleston, and Herbert Adams Gibbons, with the coöperation of the artist Lester B. Hornby, gives a graphic account of his wanderings in Brittany.

OUR RAILROADS AND NATIONAL DEFENSE

IN the September number of the *North American Review*, which is occupied with problems of military and naval defense, Mr. Charles O. Haines, formerly chief engineer of the Florida East Coast Line, contributes an illuminating discussion of the part that may be played by American railroads in any scheme of effective national defense.

It should hardly have required the sternly enforced lessons of the great war in Europe to bring clearly to our minds the truth that the far-reaching use and coöperation of our railroads must be included in any plans for national defense worthy of the name. It is a strange fact, however, that if any plans for the utilization of American railroads in time of war have been worked out by the authorities, no details have thus far been permitted to reach the public. In what other modern country would such a state of affairs be permitted?

As Mr. Haines remarks, it is assumed that the Quartermaster-General will arrange for the transportation of troops and munitions, and it is expected that numbers of railroad employees will be enrolled in the armed forces and employed in ways for which their civil training has peculiarly fitted them, yet the magnitude of the transportation problem seems to have escaped even our ablest military minds. The problems of transportation in war time and in times of peace are wholly different, and it was Germany's foresight in recognizing the underlying differences between these two sets of problems that contributed so greatly to her early successes in the war, while it was England's loss that she failed to recognize these fundamental differences until after the beginning of hostilities, thus being placed at a serious disadvantage.

As to the United States, Mr. Haines thinks that we have made no advance since our war with Spain.

The attitude then, both of the railroads and of our military leaders, was that the transportation of armies and their needs involved a purely commercial transaction; and the Quartermaster-General was required to arrange for the movement of so many men and so much freight to Port Tampa, Chickamauga, or Montauk, as the case might be. He, or his representatives, called on the traffic officials of different railroads for proposals as to rates, routing, and facilities for handling the business. The most satisfactory

proposals were accepted, and troops or munitions of war were sent forward by that route. Traffic officials sought this new business with the same ardor and persistence as they sought an excursion to a fair, or a Grand Army encampment. Shipments of munitions of war were desirable to the extent that the traffic was profitable. One particularly energetic official of the railroad that the writer was at the time managing succeeded in getting a shipment of ammunition for Tampa forwarded by us, though the route was some hundreds of miles longer than the direct one.

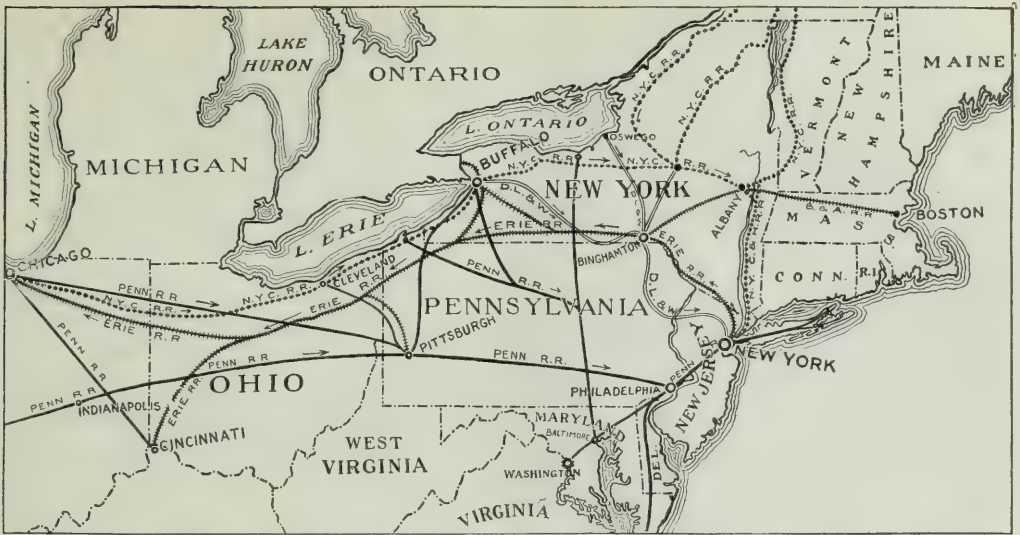
Our Government declared war on Spain April 25, 1898. But it was not until May 8 that the Quartermaster-General directed his subordinates to make proper arrangements with the railroad officials, so that troops might be moved with "comfort and celerity." The results of this haphazard policy, concurred in by both Government and railroad officials, were deplorable. They failed of being disastrous only by reason of the feeble resistance of the enemy. Yet, while our press directed public attention to delays in forwarding troops, and, more frequently, to the manner in which needed war supplies were held up, the happenings at the front were more interesting, and these adverse criticisms made no lasting impression.

It is true that our railroads to-day are well organized and highly efficient, but they are organized for times of peace and are efficient as agents of commerce. Put the same organization, specialized for peaceful commerce only, under the stress of a great war and we may safely predict that it would break down again just as it did in 1898. The time to perfect plans for military and railroad coöperation, Mr. Haines urges, is while we are at peace. Our railroad organizations should now be developed and strengthened.

In considering the relationship of the railroads to our military policy, Mr. Haines prefers to regard the roads not as separate systems, but as a whole. In this way only can any comprehensive plan for national defense be formulated. Troops and supplies should, of course, be forwarded by the most expeditious route, whether it be all included in one railroad system, or be made up of several.

The selection of the military trunk lines would depend, first, upon regional or geographical considerations, and, secondly, upon questions of direction, grades, solidity of construction, and security from attack under given conditions. Certain roads would be chosen as feeders, or auxiliary lines to the military trunk lines, and certain other roads would be designated chiefly for commercial usage.

In order to show the complexity and im-



IMPORTANT RAILROAD LINES BETWEEN THE GREAT LAKES AND THE NORTH ATLANTIC SEABOARD, SHOWING POSSIBLE TRANSPORTATION ROUTES FOR MILITARY FORCES AND SUPPLIES IN TIME OF WAR

(The New York Central lines might be used for the eastbound movement of troops, while the empty equipment might be returned to Chicago over the Erie; munitions might be forwarded east over the Pennsylvania and food supplies for the civic population over the Lackawanna)

portance of the main elements of military transportation problems, Mr. Haines supposes that an enemy has invaded New England and that an army was being rushed forward from the Great Lakes to the Atlantic seaboard to the aid of the defense.

The approved plan for military purposes might select the New York Central lines with all of their tracks for the forward movement of troops, while the returning empty equipment might be routed over the Erie. Ammunition and war supplies would possibly be forwarded over the Pennsylvania, the West Shore, and the Delaware and Hudson. In the meantime, however, the great cities in New York and New Jersey would have to be fed, and the Lackawanna and Lehigh Valley would be designated to transport such supplies. But if the expeditious movement of empty equipment necessitated the use of part of the Lackawanna trackage, thus breaking up the continuous operation of that system, this would have to be arranged for by utilizing part of some connecting lines, so that the inflow of supplies for the civil population would be insured. One such example serves to show the need for an unburied study of these problems, by both transportation expert and military strategist.

To facilitate such a study Mr. Haines suggests as a first requisite the preparation of a railroad map of the United States drawn by competent cartographers, but from a military standpoint. On this should be designated the military trunk roads, their feeders or auxiliaries, and also those lines which should be set apart for commercial purposes and for civilian benefit. In the selection of such lines

little or no consideration should be paid to actual ownership, but parts of different railways should be so combined as to form one strategic road. These maps would show, naturally, the physical character of the railroads, their grades, number of tracks, character of construction, character of bridges and their location, and the kind and character of all connecting tracks, or tracks to landing places on water lines.

A full and accurate description of all rolling stock, motive power, and other equipment should also be prepared and the capacity of every passenger and freight train car should be stated in terms of men and horses, and it should be known what equipment is capable of speedy conversion into armored trains, siege-gun carriages and the like, and where it is located.

To utilize effectively the personnel of our railroads,—a million and a half of men of the best training and highest discipline, with a well-developed sense of responsibility,—Mr. Haines suggests that a complete roster should be prepared, including all classes and many individuals, describing their duties and special aptitudes in peace and war. It should prescribe the proportion of different classes that might well be released for army service, and while providing men for military transportation should also provide them for commercial transportation, since many railroad employees would be of far greater service to the nation on the tracks than in the trenches.

NAVAL WAR AND PRIVATE PROPERTY: GERMANY'S ATTITUDE

THE German jurist Kurt Perles discusses the various phases of the maritime prize-law in a recent issue of the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin), telling of the different steps that have led to its present status, and reaching the conclusion that it would be detrimental to Germany's interests to have it annulled.

Naval warfare,—the writer explains,—differs from warfare on land not only in the scene of its activities but in its aims. The efforts of the former, too, are, of course, directed primarily against the military enginery of the enemy, but, besides that, its object is the direct economic overthrow of the foe. While in a land-war private property is regarded as inviolable, and may be taken, in exceptional cases, only by paying indemnity, in naval warfare the injury and, if possible, the annihilation of the traffic of the enemy constitutes to the present day the chief object of naval operations. This applies to the private property of neutrals as well as to that of the enemy, subject to the regulations of the prize-law. By the terms of that law certain commodities utilized for warfare, as well as, under certain conditions, the ships conveying them, may be seized without indemnity or regard to their ownership. It permits, furthermore, the seizure of ships attempting to run the blockade of the enemy's coast.

The prize-law, finally, allows the seizure, without indemnity, of all enemy vessels on the high seas and of all goods belonging to the enemy found on such or any other vessels.

The exemption of goods conveyed on *neutral* boats from the prize-law (always, of course, excepting contraband) is one of the results,—and the only one of essential importance,—that have been achieved in the campaign waged against the prize-law in the last hundred and fifty years; it was established by the second regulation of the Paris Declaration of 1856.

The opponents of the prize-law base their attacks mainly upon two points. They assert, in the first place, that it is never a decisive factor in the outcome of a war, since the enemy can procure the necessary commodities by means of neutral vessels,—rendering the prize-law superfluous; and, secondly, that operations directed against private persons or private property violate "the spirit of modern war" which sanctions only the struggle of state against state.

Both contentions, the writer declares, have been refuted in the great European war. Only the *measure* in which the prize-law will influence the result of the conflict cannot as yet be determined. But it is already a settled fact that a war of our time is not waged between the organized forces alone. On the contrary, the dragging of peaceful civilians into captivity regardless of age and sex, the plundering of private property, and the expressed purpose of the English group to achieve a conquest over the Central Powers by means of starving their people, are the most characteristic features of the present conflict.

But from the lessons taught by this war is it not desirable to agitate the question of abolishing the prize-law?

The writer details the attitude of various countries and important representative bodies on this point. The Interparliamentary Union has repeatedly declared itself against it. The same view has been advocated by the *Institut de droit international* at several sessions, the first in 1875, the last in 1912. The recent private peace and arbitration congresses have followed their example. The most important representative body of German marine interests, *Die Deutsche Nautische Verein*, resolved in 1909, with but one dissenting voice, "that the seizure and destruction of enemy private property (always excepting contraband) is declared inadmissible."

In France public opinion, greatly influenced by Admiral Aube, has favored the maintenance, nay the extension, of the prize-law as the "surest means of national defense"; and this view has been the prevailing one in England, though it has met with sharp opposition from various authoritative quarters.

Nor has the attitude of the various governments been of a uniform character. Since 1785 there have been only isolated instances,—none between naval powers of consequence,—of international agreements to abolish the maritime prize-law. Though confined within narrow limits, such agreements might create the impression that the tendency is towards annulling that law. Facts of more recent occurrence, however, show that this is not so. In all the naval wars since 1871 the prize-law has been extensively utilized; for instance, in the Spanish-American,

the Russo-Japanese, the Tripolitan, and the Balkan wars. It was at the second Hague Peace Conference, in 1907, that the proposition of the United States to secure the free passage of the private property (save contraband and excepting blockade-runners) of all the signatory powers, came up for discussion. England, France, Russia, and Japan were the chief opponents of the proposal. Germany assented, with the condition that regulations concerning contraband and blockade-running be passed in advance. The defeat of the advocates of annulment of the prize-law was so crushing at that conference that the question was not even brought up at the London Naval Conference of the next year.

During the present war the various governments conformed to the prize-law within its accustomed limits. Then followed the well-known intensification of that law, proclaimed by the English, in virtue of which the property of German subjects, and likewise commodities issuing from or destined for Germany, were subjected to seizure or detention,—an extension which, if not a direct abrogation of the Paris Declaration, comes very near being so.

More than once during the present conflict has the wish been expressed that the end of the war should likewise be the end of the maritime prize-law. It is questionable whether Germany's interests demand, or even permit, an international agreement of that nature, particularly with England.

As regards the question of military interest the writer thinks it can be easily answered. The British merchant marine is, on the one hand, greater than the German, and on the other, its utilization is vitally necessary to the United Kingdom. Owing to its superior size it offers a broader field of attack to the German navy than does the German merchant marine to the navy of England. As the suppression of its merchant vessels would destroy the vital arteries of the British island kingdom, it dare not withdraw them from attack.

Germany, on the other hand, can stand the stoppage of vessels to her ports for a considerable period without decisive detriment to her military arrangements. Moreover, it is not likely that in a future war with England, France, and Russia will be on England's side. Since, finally, the German navy is smaller than the British but is not compelled to fight the latter, it is to Germany's interest to maintain the prize-law as an essential means of warfare.

German economic interests, particularly the shipping and commercial interests, might



A GERMAN VIEW OF ENGLAND'S POSITION

JOHN BULL: "What, I am not to indulge in piracy? Then I shall lose all joy of my world power."

From *Jugend* (Munich)

seem to point in the opposite direction,—that is, toward the annulment of the prize-law. There is no doubt that in a German-English war German shipping is hard hit, and thus a great source of economic strength is cut off. But is there any guarantee that it would be different should the prize-law be abrogated? Judging by the experiences of the present war, we must answer in the negative. How easy it is to declare, and how hard to disprove, that an enemy ship carries persons or goods in the interest of the enemy navy? Now, England regards such ships as "auxiliaries," that is, as part of the war-fleet, and accordingly does not give them the benefit even of the maritime prize-law but treats them as ordinary war booty.

As matters stand, the writer continues, the gains to German shipping by the annulment of the prize-law would be scarcely worth mention. For it is indifferent to a ship-owner whether his vessel is seized by virtue of a maritime prize-law or some other. That the crews of German merchant-vessels would in either case be consigned to captivity may be incidentally mentioned.

Greater even, it may be, than losses in shipping is the loss incurred by Germany in her overseas trade. But would German sea-traffic gain anything in reality,—not only on

paper,—if the legal rule that “enemy goods upon enemy ships are subject to seizure” were rescinded? In the great war England and her vassals have proclaimed a law of contraband,—encountering only theoretical objections on the part of the neutral nations,—which in its boundless reach makes the maritime prize-law practically superfluous. One who sees things as they are, the writer observes, must arrive at the conclusion that Germany’s import and export trade would not be increased to any appreciable extent by the abrogation of the maritime prize-law.

NEUTRAL OPINION, AS WEIGHED IN FRANCE AND ITALY

IN *Rassegna Nazionale* (Rome) appears a notice on the attitude of the neutral powers toward the Allies, more especially toward France. The writer, E. S. Kingswan, one of the staff of the *Rassegna*, takes for his text an article by M. René Milan, on the “Evolution of the Neutrals,” looked upon from a strictly French viewpoint. This is characterized and criticized as follows:

It is well to observe that, in the evolution of neutral opinion, enthusiasm has had much less influence than our author supposes. The sentiments of the neutrals have been evolved, not in accord with chivalric ideas alone, but also according to the vital interests at stake in the tremendous conflict. We intentionally use the term enthusiasm, because the writer does not cite facts, and contents himself with claiming an absolute conformity of sentiment among the various neutral countries. If, however, we confine ourselves to the facts, we must note, for example, that the Balkan countries are holding themselves more and more aloof from intervention; indeed, late reports even state that an agreement has been reached with the Central Powers for supplying them with provisions.

As to the United States of America, directly menaced by Germany, we note that the American people, which always seemed the most sensitive on a point of honor, and ever ready to cry out for war because of the slightest offense to any of the citizens, has to-day become the most patient of peoples, and appears to be absolutely averse to becoming involved in hostilities.

However, the German ruthlessness in the war should be looked upon, not as an end in itself, but rather as means to an end; this should not be forgotten. For a belligerent nation, self-preservation is the first law, but the impartial outsider or observer is able to perceive that alongside of the word “law” is traced in small letters and in parentheses the word “interest.”

That among neutrals the current sets strongly toward sympathy with France is insisted upon by M. Milan. The existence of this sentiment we are not disposed to deny; it is another thing, however, to say that it is altogether general, or that it has long existed. According to the French writer, the distrust felt regarding France at the outset of hostilities had its root in Waterloo and Sedan, two battles and two defeats. This seems to be an error. We all know of another France,—a France not of defeats, but of victories,—and

our sympathy for France could not be clouded by the memory of these disasters. It was not Waterloo nor Sedan that gave birth to the undeniable distrust, but the spectacle offered to the world by French officialdom during recent years.

The widespread corruption of the France of the Third Republic before the war is clearly recognized and emphasized by the Italian writer. Boastfulness coupled with unpreparedness in military affairs; rampant anticlericalism and a disquieting “red” note in internal politics; a general relaxation of the moral standard; and last but not least the terrible Caillaux scandal, “which made every Italian blush for the Latin sister,” all these things tended to weaken the sympathies of those nations which had long valued and esteemed French civilization, the best products of French art and literature, and the important contributions France had made to the world’s progress. For the opinion of outsiders must always be determined by external aspects. In the case of Italy, the real determining causes were, however, to be sought elsewhere. Of this the Italian critic says:

For one thing, we are not ready to admit any evolution in Italian sentiment; from the very beginning we had decided, and this appears in our Green Book. It is certain that the instances of German ruthlessness were important factors that slowly affected the masses; but we were held back by the necessity for adequate preparations that were initiated at the outset of the war.

Moreover, if the neutrals had a moment of distrust before the Battle of the Marne, who shall blame them? France risked her very existence upon a single maneuver. Paris was stripped of troops, and all that intervened between her and the victorious Von Kluck were a few scattered forces. Von Kluck, distrustful, swung around toward the Marne and was defeated. Providence had saved France; but had not the neutrals good cause for anxiety and hesitation? If the new France maintains herself, Italy’s sympathy will be lasting, but if unfortunately she should relapse into what she was before the war, then we would be filled with profound regret, but we could no longer follow her.

THE COMMON SOLDIER OF FRANCE

THE masses of French infantry, the territorials and reservists, are known to the professional soldiers as the *poilus*, "the bristly," "the unshaven," "the hairy ones." An American correspondent, Arno Dosch, describes in the *Forum* a company of these infantry, "all bearded, all weary, all covered with mud." This was the impression that these rough-looking soldiers gave of the grim determination with which they go about the work at hand:

There was not a comment, not a movement of the head, in the whole company; but each man expressed the toughness of the job with his eyes. Nor did those eyes express anything of the joy of battle. You could see only that it was a tough job and they knew it; but that it had to be done and they were doing it. I cannot say how they conveyed the idea that they were also going to succeed in doing it, but they made that plain, too.

All these impressions they gave without saying a word. They did not even speak among themselves. They simply stopped and looked at us, but their eyes showed that they knew exactly what they were doing, and the price in lives they would have to pay, and, somehow, that seemed to make them invincible. Physically they were indifferent, short, stocky men, from whom the spring of youth had entirely gone. Their uniforms, badly fitting in the first place, were pulled out of shape by hard usage. Their trousers, red and grey cloth, and brown corduroy, were plastered with mud. So were their elbows and caps. There was even mud in their beards.

The cavalry officer who was conducting Mr. Dosch pointed to the ditches and great holes left by exploded mines on the sides of Notre-Dame-de-Lorette. "They're taking it," said this cavalry officer. "They will take it all, too, bumping the Germans out of France, yard by yard." Yet in this regular officer's tone there was a bit of contempt; for the professional soldier cannot forget the distinction between the trained and the untrained fighter; but even he betrays his affection for the "bearded, nondescript, scrubby-looking soldier,—the man who has saved France."

This writer was visiting the battlefields

of the past spring, Notre-Dame-de-Lorette, Carency, Vermelles, and Mount Saint-Eloi, where the Germans had first weakened under the persistent French attack. "Here was the first trial of strength, hand to hand, body against body, bayonet clashing against bayonet. Here it was that France first had the feeling that soldier for soldier, man for man, she could push the Germans right out of France. And who had done the attacking? The *poilus*."

A line of trenches was reached, separated only by seventy-five feet of green field from the parapet of the first German trench.



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A GROUP OF "THE HAIRY ONES" THAT FORM THE BONE AND SINEW OF THE FRENCH ARMY

(These are some of the French soldiers who reoccupied Amiens)

"Near enough?" laughed the poilu, as I stepped hastily down. I told him it was as near as I wanted to get. "But we shall be nearer soon," he remarked. "For seven months we have been creeping up on them, and they cannot hold us much longer. They were blind when they attacked us. Because they were ready and we were not, they thought they could wipe us out. They did not know whom they were fighting, or they would have realized no Frenchman could rest while a German soldier remained on French soil. We have been winning it all back inch by inch and we will go on winning it back if we have to creep underground and blow up their trenches every twenty yards from here to the Ardennes."

He spoke with a fierce intensity and a volubility that made up for all the silent poilus I had seen that day. The fact that the German soldiers were only seventy-five feet away in their trenches seemed to be neither here nor there. I could imagine them, though I could not even see the

point of a helmet, big, blond, well-fleshed young Bavarians, admirable-looking soldiers; but they did not seem a menace at that moment. It was they who were menaced. The spirit of the man beside me made me feel that the trench in which I stood was a comparatively safe place. And

yet he was only a middle-aged man in a badly fitting coat and sloppy trousers, and he needed a shave. But, as he spoke, his eyes shone and his jaws squared under the stubble. He was not much to look at, perhaps, but he was a patriot after an American's own heart.

HOW AN AMERICAN WOMAN SAW THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE

AN American woman, Miss Mildred Aldrich, had the unique experience of living throughout the great battle of the Marne, in September, 1914, within sound of the cannonading and within sight of the movements of troops. Her story is related in letters addressed to a friend in this country and published in the July, August, and September numbers of the *Atlantic Monthly*. From the concluding letter, in the September number, the following excerpts are made:

The battle had advanced right over the crest of the hill. The sun was shining brilliantly on silent Mareuil and Chauconin, but Montyon and Penchard were enveloped in smoke. From the eastern and western extremities of the plain we could see the artillery fire, but owing to the smoke hanging over the crest of the hill on the horizon, it was impossible to get an idea of the positions of the armies. In the west it seemed to be somewhere near Claye, and in the east it was in the direction of Barcy. I tried to remember what the English soldiers had said,—that the Germans were, if possible, to be pushed east, in which case the artillery at the west must be either the French or English. The hard thing to bear was, that it was all conjecture.

So often, when I first took this place on the hill, I had looked off at the plain and thought, "What a battlefield!" forgetting how often the Seine et Marne had been that, from the days when the kings lived at Chelles down to the days when it saw the worst of the invasion of 1870. But when I thought that, I had visions very different from what I was seeing. I had imagined long lines of marching soldiers, detachments of flying cavalry, like the war pictures at Versailles and Fontainebleau. Now I was actually seeing a battle, and it was nothing like that. There was only noise, belching smoke, and long drifts of white clouds concealing the hill.

By the middle of the afternoon Montyon came slowly out of the smoke. That seemed to mean that the heaviest firing was over the hill and not on it,—or did it mean that the battle was receding? If it did, then the Allies were retreating. There was no way to discover the truth. And all this time the cannon thundered in the south-east, in the direction of Coulommiers, on the route into Paris by Ivry.

A dozen times during the afternoon I went into the study and tried to read. Little groups of old men, women, and children were in the road, mounted on the barricade which the English had left. I could hear the murmur of their voices.

In vain I tried to stay indoors. The thing was stronger than I, and in spite of myself, I would go out on the lawn and, field-glass in hand, watch the smoke.

Between me and the terrible thing stretched a beautiful country, as calm in the sunshine as if horrors were not. In the field below me the wheat was being cut. I remembered vividly afterward that a white horse was drawing the reaper, and women and children were stacking and gleanng. Now and then the horse would stop, and a woman, with her red handkerchief on her head, would stand, shading her eyes a moment, and look off. Then the white horse would turn and go plodding on. The grain had to be got in if the Germans were coming, and these fields were to be trampled as they were in 1870.

I did not wake on the morning of Monday, September 7—yesterday—until I was waked by the cannon at five. I jumped out of bed and rushed to the window. This time there could be no doubt of it: the battle was receding. The cannonading was as violent, as incessant, as it had been the day before, but it was surely farther off to the northeast of Meaux. It was another beautiful day. I never saw such weather.

Amélie was on the lawn when I came down. "They are surely retreating," she called as soon as I appeared.

"They surely are," I replied. "It looks as if they were somewhere near Lizy-sur-l'Ourcq"; and that was a guess of which I was proud a little later. I carry a map round these days as if I were an army officer.

As Amélie had not been for the milk the night before, she started off quite gaily for it. She has to go to the other side of Voisins. It takes her about half an hour to go and return; so,—just for the sake of doing something,—I thought I would run down and see how the little French family at the foot of the hill had got through the night.

Amélie had taken the road across the fields. It is rough walking, but she doesn't mind. I had stopped to tie a fresh ribbon about my cap,—a tri-color,—and was about five minutes behind her. I was about halfway down the hill when I saw Amélie coming back, running, stumbling, waving her milk-can and shouting, "Madame,—un Anglais, un Anglais." And sure enough, coming on behind her, his face wreathed in smiles, was an English bicycle scout, wheeling his machine. As soon as he saw me he waved his cap, and Amélie breathlessly explained that she had said, "Dame Americaine," and he had dismounted and followed her at once.

We went together to meet him. As soon as he was near enough, he called out, "Good morning.



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GERMANS CROSSING THE MARNE ON A PONTON BRIDGE

Everything is all right. Germans been as near you as they will ever get. Close shave."

When it was all over Miss Aldrich found herself wondering how it had happened and by what strange stroke of fortune she had come to live on that hillside only to see a battle and have it come almost to her cottage door, and then turn back and leave her and her belongings untouched, while so few miles away the destruction has been complete.

The sensation was uncanny. Out there in the northeast still boomed the cannon. The smoke of the battle still rose straight in the still air. I had seen the war. I had watched its destructive bombs. For three days its cannon had pounded on every nerve in my body; but none of the horror it had sowed from the eastern frontier of Belgium to within four miles of me had reached me except in the form of a threat. Yet out there on the plain, almost within my sight, lay the men who had paid with their lives,—each dear to someone,—to hold back the battle from Paris,—and incidentally from me.

THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA

THE sensation of the past month on the eastern battle front was the recall of Grand Duke Nicholas from the leadership of the Russian armies and the assumption by the Czar of full command. Notwithstanding the many reverses which the Russian armies had endured for months past, it was generally believed among friends and foes alike that the one strong man of the Russian military organization was the Grand Duke himself. His deposition, as it was called (which was really a shift to the Turkish front), was everywhere received with intense surprise, mingled with chagrin.

Prior to the outbreak of the war little was known about Nikolai Nikolaivitch outside of Russia, and even within the Empire

itself, excepting in professional military circles, he was only a name. Yet within the year just past no personality on either side of the conflict has stood out more conspicuously than that of the Grand Duke. Such a character became a shining mark for the pen of the veteran American correspondent, Samuel G. Blythe, whose impressions of the Grand Duke appear in a recent issue of the *Saturday Evening Post* (Philadelphia).

One incident that Mr. Blythe narrates at the beginning of his character sketch is so illuminating that we quote it in full:

Two officers of the Russian army sat with two women at a table in a café in Warsaw. They were eating, and drinking, and laughing, and



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ONE OF THE MANY GERMAN CARICATURES OF
THE GRAND DUKE

making eyes at one another, all pleasantly and harmlessly enough, for their food was the food of the country, and their making eyes was the custom of the country, and their merriment was the merriment of youth. But what they were drinking was wine.

An officer came into the café,—an officer tall and thin, more than six feet by several inches, and very erect and military in appearance. He wore a long gray overcoat and wide gold shoulder straps, and at his neck there glittered a cross. His eyes were coldly blue. His pointed beard was streaked with white. He carried a riding crop in his hand and was booted and spurred.

The café was full of officers, and as he entered every one of them rose quickly to his feet and stood rigidly at salute. The two young officers who were sitting with the women jumped up, too, and came to salute. The women sat, rather frightened, in their chairs.

The tall, bearded officer with the glittering cross looked about the room keenly and quickly. He returned the salutes. Then he walked to the table where the two young officers were sitting with the women. He reached down and took one of the glasses, holding it to his nose an instant and then threw it to the floor, where it broke to fragments at the feet of one of the young men.

"Vina!" he said sternly.

The two officers, grown gray with fear, trembled as they stood before him. The tall man looked at them with infinite disgust. He reached out, tore off their shoulder straps and threw them on the floor. Then he turned and said a few words in harsh Russian. Some soldiers came forward and surrounded the young men. The tall man made a gesture that meant "Take them away," and the two officers were marched from the room. They were degraded. They were sent to the ranks to serve as private soldiers.

Of course the reader has already guessed that the tall man with the pointed beard streaked with white, the cold blue eye, and the glittering cross, was the commander-in-chief of the Russian army. The Grand Duke had urged on the Czar that drinking in the army should be stopped, and it was believed to be owing largely to his demand that drinking had been prohibited by imperial ukase. The young men in the café had disobeyed both the ukase of the Czar and the order of their commander-in-chief. As soon as the Grand Duke found them drinking in public he deprived them of their rank and sent them to the trenches. This was only one of many similar instances in the inner history of the Russian campaign, and, according to Mr. Blythe, there have been cases where the punishment was far greater.

This tall, thin man who is the hope of Russia is also the practical dictator of Russia. He heads the army. He dominates the Czar and the government. Intensely Russian in his patriotism, he is quite non-Russian in many of his tendencies. The leisurely *zaftra*,—to-morrow,—has no place in his vocabulary. He is quick, decisive, determined, imperative, stern, absolute. He is severe. He is implacable. He does not postpone or palter as does the average Russian. He thinks and acts instantly. A self-sufficient, self-contained, fierce, entirely military man. He is cold and aloof, but passionately patriotic. He demands the last drop of blood, the last ounce of effort. He drives his soldiers to death without a thought save that of victory.

He uses men not as human beings, but as implements of warfare. He exacts implicit obedience and punishes ruthlessly those who even seem to disobey. He is cultured, the highest type of a Russian aristocrat,—than whom there is no more agreeable man,—and affable and hospitable; but in war and in discipline he is terrible.

There is no nonsense about him, none of the dreamy frivolity that is the general characteristic of the Russian people. He is given neither to imagination nor to sentiment. He is a hard, practical, austere, exacting man, who hesitates at nothing to get results, and who will send a hundred thousand soldiers to slaughter, if he thinks there is an advantage to be gained, with as little compunction as he will light a cigarette.

Yet, despite his severity, his iron discipline, and his ruthless sacrifice of men, Mr. Blythe declares that Nikolai is worshiped by the army and by the country. "He is the great

man of Russia. The Russians pin all their hopes on him." His independence of the bureaucracy, noted by Mr. Blythe, may have had much to do with his removal from chief command. As Mr. Blythe put it: "He operates as he will; the ministry and the Czar have their say; he listens gravely and does as he pleases; he scorns the bureaucrats; he pushes the governmental advisers aside."

Mr. Blythe gives a graphic description of the difficulties under which the Grand Duke has labored throughout the war:

He has been hampered in many ways. He has lacked ammunition, because of the eternal procrastination of the bureaucrats in Petrograd. He has lacked rifles for his soldiers. He has lacked

supplies. He has been forced to wait for endless hours for maintenance and munitions for his soldiers while government officials dickered and delayed and quibbled and grafted in Petrograd. He has had insufficient care for his wounded. He has even sent out soldiers armed only with oak cudgels. He has lost by disease and by cold. He has had inefficient generals. He has been compelled to retire. He has been whelmed by disaster, but never overwhelmed. He has known about thousands on thousands of tons of essentials for his campaigns piled up in Archangel, in Petrograd, at Tornea,—supplies that would help him win victories,—but he has fought on grimly, and he has held his men steadily to their bloody work. He is above the intrigue of Petrograd, above the sinister and conflicting influences of that partly German, partly Russian court. A whale of a man is Nikolai Nikolaivitch,—the big man of Russia.

THE AUSTRALASIAN MILITARY SYSTEM

AMONG English-speaking countries Australia and New Zealand alone have thus far tried to combine the duty of national defense with the privilege of citizenship through the establishment of a system of compulsory military service under democratic auspices. This has been brought about largely through the efforts of radical labor administrations. Both countries entered on the experiment only six years ago. In the *World's Work* (London) for September Mr. Arthur Willert describes the workings of the system, which provides, he says, for the compulsory military training of all males not physically unfit, but it has nothing in common with the conscription system of the great European military powers.

Each individual's training is spread over a period of thirteen years. There is no wrenching of youths away from college or from the opening of their careers and herding them in barracks for a year or two. The training is what is called "home training."

Australia is divided into 200 "areas," under an "area officer" responsible for registration and organization of the various classes into which the men of his area are divided. The first period of training starts at the age of twelve and continues two years. The "junior cadets," as they are called, practise physical culture, drills, gymnastics, walking, running, swimming, and other exercises calculated to produce good military material. They are also taught such things as "first aid" and miniature rifle shooting.

The second stage begins at fourteen and lasts four years. During it the cadet is thoroughly drilled in all the first essentials of military duty, so that when, at the age of eighteen, he passes into the ranks of the citizen soldiery he may be

something much better than a raw recruit. He will have been disciplined, he will know the use of his arms, and, above all, he will have learned the meaning of order, obedience, and duty. In the active ranks of the citizen soldiery the young Australasian passes seven years (from eighteen to twenty-five).

At no time is either cadet or soldier withdrawn from his ordinary employment. Not more than sixteen days of training or their equivalent in half days or shorter spells are enforced in any one year. Junior cadets receive ninety hours' physical training and elementary drills under the public-school authorities. Senior cadets are under the military authorities. They do four whole-day drills, twelve half-day drills, and twenty-four night drills every year.

The citizen army does sixteen whole-day drills a year, including at least eight days in camp,—the infantry and cavalry part of it, that is to say. Men in the naval service, the artillery engineers, and other special corps do twenty-five whole days of work, of which seventeen must be spent on shipboard or in camp. It is expected, too, that the cavalry will soon be put under the latter regulations as well.

Lord Kitchener, having been asked to give his advice, paid the United States the compliment of preferring West Point to the English officers' training establishments of Sandhurst and Woolwich as a model for the Australian military college for the training of officers. Hence Duntroon, as the Australian military academy is called, is a fairly accurate copy of the institution at West Point. Its course is four years and its education is comprehensive. Entry to it (from the age of sixteen to eighteen) is by competitive examination.



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A DETACHMENT OF AUSTRALIAN TROOPS

It is estimated that in Australia there will eventually be from 90,000 to 100,000 senior cadets in training out of a total male population of about 180,000 between the ages of fourteen and eighteen, and about 120,000 citizen soldiers out of an available male population of about 320,000. In considering this ratio of soldiers to population it should be remembered that parts of Australia are so

sparsely inhabited that training on the "home" system is impossible.

Sydney University was the first university in the British Empire to put military science on a par with the other branches of the ordinary curriculum. A naval college to correspond with the military college at Duntroon has recently been established near the new federal capital.

GERMANY AND IRELAND

IT was an undoubted disappointment in German diplomatic circles that the conflict of views and desires between Ulster and the southern counties of Ireland, which bore so ominous a portent for a while, should have failed to embarrass the British Government as had been expected in those momentous days of August, 1914, when Britons were called to arms. Men on both sides put aside their private griefs to rally to the standard of the Union Jack.

Nevertheless there remained a few disaffected spirits to whom the name of England continued to be anathema. Some of them

took refuge in Germany, and of these Sir Roger Casement is probably the most distinguished. Others made pilgrimage to our own shores, and there has been much talk, public and private, of their activities in behalf of the Teutonic cause.

It is peculiarly interesting, therefore, to learn that Sir Roger, the irreconcilable, has contributed a preface to the recent German edition of a monograph published in this city a few months ago under the title: "British versus German Imperialism: A Contrast."

Sir Roger expressly states that this political pamphlet was sent to him from New

York by an unknown hand. But, while he disclaims knowledge of the name or personality of the writer, he feels sure he is a fellow Irishman. He writes in the *Deutsche Rundschau*:

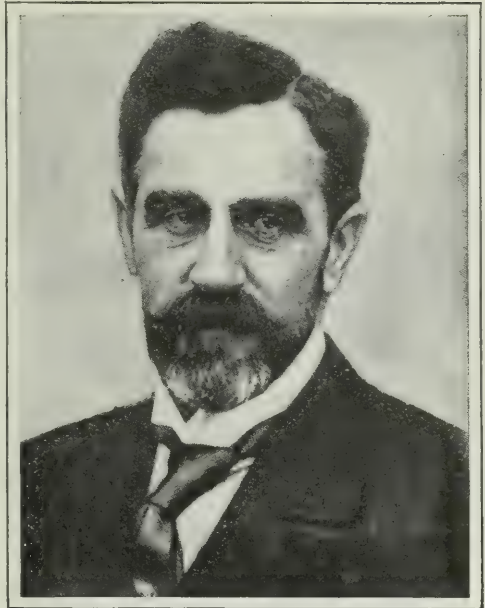
In prefacing this study of the two kinds of Imperialism with a few sweeping remarks of my own, I must acknowledge that I can lay no claim to being a neutral. Indeed I cannot understand how *any* warm-blooded person can remain neutral in this war,—least of all an Irishman. . . .

Few persons in Ireland, and yet fewer in Germany, have ever thought of the possibility of a political union between the outlying Atlantic island and the great Central Europe empire. And yet there was a close union in the past, occasioned not by political, but by religious and spiritual ties. Irish priests, Irish teachers, Irish monks, came overseas, and, passing through Gaul or up the Rhine, brought to the bright fields of South Germany the evangel of self-denial, founding there some of the earliest consecrated spots of Christendom. It is quite as certain that Germans undertook to visit Ireland in those early days. More than one of the Irish churches still extant, dating from the ninth and tenth centuries, show unmistakable signs of being modeled after German prototypes. . . .

How this early union might have developed it is now impossible to say. The onslaught upon Ireland by the wild Norman warriors of Henry II, each of them determined to carve out a little kingdom of his own from the bleeding body of the "Holy Island," had the effect of severing all union between Ireland and the continent. . . . Thus was the culture-carrying element between western Christianity and the Middle Europe culture cut off by that policy of expansion that even in the days of the Plantagenets already distinguished England as the central fortress of a Pirate Kingdom. After the plan of reducing the size of France by means of the skill of their island bowmen had failed, the kings of England chose Ireland as the one conquered spot where it was possible to lay the foundation and form the first stages of an "Imperium." The weakening of Ireland was a necessity for the builders of the empire. This policy, at first only vaguely perceptible, became clear to the crafty minds of Henry VIII and his daughter Elizabeth.

In the seventy years of their combined rule they laid the foundations of British greatness, British world-power, for the edifice of that mighty empire that now lays claim at once to the astonishment and the admiration, the fear and the horror, of mankind,—the foundations were laid in the plundering and destruction of the Irish people, and in the subjection of their beautiful, fruitful island to the necessities of the British expansion policy. Never was a more careful plan more ruthlessly executed. The horrors of the Thirty Years' War in Germany are but a pale reflection of the atrocities suffered in Ireland throughout the whole century in which the England of the Tudors grew into imperialistic Britain.

After this impassioned attack upon Britannia's crimes Sir Roger remarks bitterly that since he who would bind the bodies of a



SIR ROGER CASEMENT

people must destroy their soul, English policy left no stone unturned to destroy every vestige of the relics of their former rich inheritance, and that when her brutal task had been ended she was ready to turn elsewhere for plunder and profit gained by the same means. And he declares that, if England could, England would do to Germany what she has done to Ireland, and that the same evils would follow a similar ruin.

Even as the Irish have been maligned, oppressed, insulted, and exposed to general contempt, even so would the German people be attacked, even so are they in fact being attacked in every quarter of the globe where the English lies can penetrate and spread their asphyxiating gases. A common foe, a common enmity, should create a common interest and a fixed policy. Hitherto Germany has entirely misunderstood the Irish situation, and has missed,—doubtless from her honorable good-will for England,—many opportunities to better her position in this direction.

Sir Roger's next point is a complaint that one of the chief mistakes of latter-day diplomacy has been Germany's failure to endeavor to get the Irish viewpoint, a mistake, however, which he considers that other opponents of England have been equally guilty of. And he adds significantly:

And yet the easiest path for the hindering and confounding of British policy and checking the British offensive on the continent certainly led through this neglected island. If at the time of the Boer War, *i. e.*, when the opposition to England assumed a definite form, Germany had sent

a consul to Ireland and begun a systematic study of conditions there, she would not have been led into her recent mistake of believing that the menace to England's security in Ireland came from the Ulster volunteers. The British Government cherished no such illusion. It allowed Sir Edward Carson to arm his people openly. They forbade the import of arms into Ireland only when the Irish Nationalists, with whom I was working, began to imitate the much-praised loyalty of the people of Ulster. Downing Street well knew where "Irish" loyalty lay. It is not Belfast which is denied weapons to-day and which is surrounded by mines and hostile garrisons, but the closed and empty harbors of the south and west of Ireland.

A definite German policy with regard to Ireland should have been a part of the German war-plan in the event of a German-British war. . . . Even as things are now Germany has friends in Ireland, and more perhaps than is suspected. To be sure they are unarmed friends, and hence powerless to support either their own cause or that of the nation now threatened by the same

arch-enemy. But if there had been an Irish policy, if German methods had been less conscientious, less uprightly honorable towards England, then the Irish volunteers might have comprised a well-armed fighting body, a well-armed Ireland might have had a more deterrent effect upon England's greedy ambition than even the "outraged neutrality" of Belgium could have outweighed. An armed Ireland might well have meant a disarmed England.

Germany has hesitated to meddle in the "internal affairs" of her neighbor, and as a result she finds to-day that the neighbor whose interests she has so loyally regarded, . . . would fain place her,—if she could manage it,—in a position of lasting impotence and subjection.

In his closing paragraphs Sir Roger remarks that the beginning of an understanding between Germany and Ireland can already be seen, that "the foundations of a common policy, grounded in a common hope, have already been laid in America."

SANITATION FOR ARMIES AND BATTLEFIELDS

AMONG the gravest and most urgent problems now confronting both military and civil authorities in the belligerent countries of Europe are the maintenance of sanitary conditions in the army and the restoration of wholesomeness to the battlefields that have been polluted and rendered noxious by the dreadful retinue that waits on carnage.

Such wholesale slaughter when it took place in the Dark Ages was followed by terrible epidemics that swept Europe with the irresistible violence of a prairie fire, and ravaged the stricken countries more cruelly than the sword.

It is encouraging to learn that organized effort is being made on both sides of the conflict to avoid such hideous consequences. The Germans take the shortest cut to checking the menace of pestilence by burning the bodies of men as well as animals. There is a strong feeling among the French, however, against such summary and unsentimental efficiency in the disposal of the remains of their fallen heroes. But so numerous have become the graves of these brave fellows that the French Minister of the Interior has been obliged to sound a note of warning that if the practise be continued there is danger that large areas of arable land may be permanently withdrawn from agricultural uses.

In a late number of *Le Correspondant* (Paris) M. Francois Marré has an interest-

ing article telling what is being done to solve these problems of sanitation for camps and for battlefields. He speaks first of the admirable hygienic regulations governing the disposal of the enormous mass of waste matter which is an inevitable accompaniment of army life. In the first place the débris from the preparation of food and particularly from the abattoirs is most carefully looked after.

Wise and prudent rules prescribe the reception in metal vessels of the blood and water used in washing the carcasses, so that none is allowed to run on the ground. These liquids are then mixed with vegetable débris or with earth so as to form a semi-solid magma, which is then carried to pits to be interred. These must be not less than 1½ meters in depth (nearly 5 feet), and the bottom is covered with a thick layer of quick-lime. The refuse is disposed in successive layers, separated by layers of straw covered by quick-lime mixed with an equal weight of sulphate of iron. When the mass reaches within 0.75 meters of the top (cc. 2½ feet) it is sprinkled with crude oil, and covered with packed earth. Finally the top is sown with clover or grain. It thus forms a compost, isolated from the open air, in whose interior the larvæ of flies will not develop.

At certain points the blood from the abattoirs is sometimes submitted to a special treatment to transform it into fertilizer, or even into food for poultry or swine; but this is necessarily exceptional, in zones far from the front.

The same excellent method disposes of kitchen débris where incineration is impossible. Care is also taken to locate such pits where they will not contaminate streams or

surface waters by septic products which may escape from them, and if possible a sandy soil is chosen, rather than one of limestone or clay, since in the latter there might be seepage through cracks or fissures down to deep reservoirs of water without previous filtration. Even where an army is in retreat the effort is made to have this work performed by the rear guard, so that the inhabitants of the region may not suffer from infection of earth and water and from a plague of flies.

Similar care is taken as regards *excreta* and M. Marré observes:

It must be noted to the honor of our military chieftains that they do not consider these measures of elementary hygiene unworthy of their attention. At all points along the front the removal of human excreta is performed so methodically, thanks to the excellence of the orders given and the perfection of their execution, that at the end of the month of May, after more than 300 days of war, of which some 250 were in the trenches, the cases of typhoid are rarer among our soldiers than when in barracks in time of peace. . . . The excreta of horses is also moistened with sulphate of iron, lime is added, and it is then buried in deep pits. . . . The places where animals have been picketed for several days are plentifully sprinkled with antiseptic liquids and spaded up to a depth of not less than half a meter (over half a yard), after being abandoned. As for bedding straw, of which each man receives not less than 5 kilos per fortnight, it is *always* burnt, and it is without doubt due to this sage precaution that typhus fever,—that frightful malady which decimates troops stationed in masses,—is still unknown in our army.

But admirable as all these precautions are, more heroic measures must be taken when after a battle the field is strewn with corpses of men and animals. The latter portion of M. Marré's article is devoted to the consideration of this subject.

The vanquished leave to the victor the care of giving to the one a decent sepulture, interring the others, and making the battle-field sanitary. But the triumphant army, too, must be on the march in order not to lose the benefit of its victory. . . . Besides, military heads are unanimous in the belief that nothing is more demoralizing to troops than to pass the night on the field of a just fought battle. . . . Therefore it is the usual custom to requisition these funeral offices from the inhabitants of the country. These casual grave-diggers are most apt to acquit themselves badly, without thinking of the terrible consequences which their too great haste may have upon the health of their region.

Moreover, natural considerations of respect and piety intervene in the case of soldiers slain on the field of honor, and singularly complicate the problem. . . . These sentiments multiply the individual interments. In all that region where took place the victory of the Marne, which saved France from invasion and broke the effort of the barbarians, the ground is almost uniformly cov-

ered for many square kilometers with the graves of the valorous men who spent their lives to ransom their country. . . . Collective sepultures are rare, but here and there trenches cover an anonymous crowd of the defenders. Then there are common burial pits for German soldiers, and, again, the small narrow French tombs where sleep the strongest, and perhaps the best among us.

Looked at in cold blood, solely from the point of view of reason and hygiene, this characteristic French piety towards the glorious dead is a weakness, not to say a fault. The French military authority, . . . is perhaps wrong to listen to the voice of sentiment rather than that of general utility. The Germans, who, following the example of the Japanese, do not hesitate to burn their dead, have less respect than we, but infinitely more practical sense.

The author here quotes a military authority on military hygiene as to the evil effects of hasty burial on fields where thousands of men and horses have fallen, and remarks that for this reason it is often necessary for the government to take effective measures to remedy such evils. Thus after the famous battle of Sedan the interments had been so badly performed by the natives of the place that it was necessary for the French and Belgian governments to send a joint commission of engineers, physicians, and chemists to accomplish the gruesome and difficult task of incinerating the corpses already buried, and M. Marré quotes from Guilley's account the manner in which this was done:

Following the principle that certain resinous and empyreumatic substances have the property when burned in the presence of fatty matters of producing an enormous intensity of heat, M. Créteur chose coal-tar as a combustible. The earth covering the tumuli was removed until the black and fetid layer in immediate contact with the bodies was reached. This layer was disinfected with a solution of phenic acid, then the corpses were uncovered and rapidly sprinkled with chloride of lime. The coal-tar was then poured into the interstices between them and set fire to by means of straw soaked in petroleum.

Such was the intensity of the caloric disengaged that the fullest graves were reduced by three-fourths in from 55 to 60 minutes. It was not possible to approach the flames except at a distance of 4 or 5 meters. It required only 5 or 6 tons of tar to incinerate 250 to 300 cadavers. The residuum was composed of calcined bones covered with a resinous layer. The subjacent earth was completely dried and disinfected. A pit 12 meters long filled with corpses was replaced by one 3 meters long at the end of the operations.

Near Metz this process was not employed; quick-lime and phenic solutions were made to serve. In Paris the tumuli were leveled and planted, sometimes after being opened and quick-lime poured in. But everywhere it was necessary to take action to purify the battlefields of 1870. Evidently the same thing must be done for the present battlefields.

EDIBLE LICHENS AS FOOD FOR MEN AND ANIMALS

ONE effect of the blockade of German ports has been to stimulate the German scientists to search for nutritive value in every possible native product,—thus one eminent man has demonstrated that even wood, provided it be “green,” may be ground into very fine sawdust and mixed with bran or grain for cattle fodder. And now comes an enthusiast to urge the use of various kinds of lichens as food for human beings as well as for animals. Dr. C. Jacobj has just published two books, in fact, advocating this addition to the menus of man and beast,—“The Lichens of Germany as Food and as Fodder” and “Reindeer Moss and Its Utilization as Fodder.” These are reviewed in *Naturwissenschaften* (Berlin) by another authority, Dr. Tobler, with the addition of some observations of his own.

Dr. Jacobj strongly advocates the use of the lichen commonly known as “Iceland Moss” as a substitute for flour in making bread. This humble plant, whose botanical name is *Cetraria Islandica*, has long been thus used in northern countries, and such use has by no means been confined to times of scarcity of food. In this country it was well-known to our grandmothers as a means of preparing jellies, but has largely been supplanted by the various brands of “gelatine” on the market.

It contains valuable nutritious carbohydrates, but is quite bitter. This bitter principle, however, may be extracted by a simple process, without injury to the nutritive value.

It is allowed to stand for three hours in a one per cent. solution of potash and is then thoroughly drained and washed. The extract (cetrarin) is a stomachic medicine. The lichen itself when freed from this bitter principle is dried, crumbled, and used with an equal part of flour, for making bread. It can also be boiled, strained, and mixed with fruit juices, etc., to make gruel or jelly. Jacobj quotes a number of Scandinavian recipes for its employment. In both forms it yields 80 per cent. of an easily digestible starch-like substance having no unpleasant taste.

Iceland moss is not obtained from Iceland, but from Scandinavia, France, Spain, Switzerland, and the Tyrol; also from the mountainous regions of Central Germany (the Harz Mountains and the Fichtelgebirge), on heaths or plains. It might be very advisable to urge its use as an addition to fodder in regions where the land is poor.

An exact chemical analysis of Iceland moss shows it to contain 70 per cent. of lichenin and 11 per cent. of dextro-lichenin, both of

which are carbohydrates; three acids to the amount of 3 or 4 per cent., 2 per cent. of ash, etheric oil, gum and sugar, and iron. Its high food value is, therefore, obvious both for human beings and for animals.

But for the latter Dr. Jacobj particularly recommends the extensive utilization, at any rate in times of war, of another lichen, the “reindeer moss,” or *Cladina rangiferina*, sometimes called *cladonia*. This is also rich in carbohydrates and is much used for fodder in northern countries, as its name implies. It forms indeed the chief food, and in winter practically the only food of that useful animal, the reindeer. Its food value is reputed to be three times as great as that of the potato, and in old books it is stated that it was used to produce sugar and alcohol.

It grows in German heatherlands in great masses and is easy to gather. The fresh lichen sells for fodder at the rate of 10 pfennig per kilogram, and a man can gather about one zentner (hundred-weight) in a day. In some localities the production is 20,000 kilograms per square kilometer. According to some recent experiments it makes an excellent fodder when boiled in whey. It, like Iceland moss, contains a bitter principle, but this seems to be less in amount in the reindeer moss, or is perhaps decomposed by the treatment.

The article suggests that besides these two there may be many other lichens which possess nutritive value. But each must be tested separately for such value, since the properties vary chemically and physiologically. A case in point is that a reindeer herd in one of the German zoological gardens refused utterly to eat a species of lichen closely allied to the reindeer moss. All sorts are more appetizingly eaten moist instead of dry. The *Cetraria glauca* is a close relative of Iceland moss, but is non-bitter. It grows all over Germany on stones, hedges, and the bark of many trees. It may prove valuable, though less easy to gather.

It should be remarked that while these lichens form an *immediate* resource, it is not at all certain it would be a *permanent* one since most, though not all species, are slow of growth, and there is as yet little knowledge, we believe, of methods of “raising” such crops. However, some future Burbank may solve that problem, as well as others arising from the insistent demand for food substitutes.

VIEWS OF INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYEES

THE opinions of about 10,000 employees in American industrial plants on typical business problems were recently obtained by the magazine *System* (Chicago) and were tabulated for publication in the September and October numbers of that periodical. The topic that had the foremost place in this questionnaire was the Ford profit-sharing scheme, of which only 60 per cent. of the replies to *System's* questions expressed unqualified approval, although the Ford plan has been regarded as more favorable than any other to the employees who work under it.

The questions were planned to obtain opinions that would be of practical assistance to business men regardless of the size or nature of their enterprises. In the answers to the question, "What is your opinion of Henry Ford's profit-sharing plan?" there was unanimous agreement in favor of the principle of sharing profits between capital and labor in one way or another. Twenty-seven per cent. of the replies expressed doubt as to the adaptability of the Ford plan to the average business, and five per cent. disapproved of it. Two per cent. felt that it was too hard on the workers; two per cent. held that it regarded unskilled labor too highly in comparison with skilled labor, and one per cent. spoke of it only as a means of obtaining advertising. Typical answers to this question are the following:

"I favor it for his (Henry Ford's) business and peculiar needs."

"I believe it would be of more benefit to share profits with his employees at the end of the year, thus having his steady employees enjoy their best efforts, as paying extremely high wages to transients only makes them dissatisfied in future positions."

"Very good, if it does not result in the man being lost in the company for dollars."

"The men say they work very hard for eight hours at a good wage, and then have time for recreation."

"Mr. Ford has done a great deed for his men, but I do not think he should have more distinction between mechanics and laborers."

"An excellent advertising stunt first. Next, it is really working for the employees of not alone the plant of Henry Ford, but of the entire city, a decided benefit, in some ways, such as fair wages, better living conditions, and so on. On the other hand, I believe it a detriment to the higher class of skilled labor, as the man who is thoroughly versed in some particular line requiring long study to master is paid the same as the man who can only throw dirt or pull a lever on a machine. For instance, if a man can get the best wages for pushing a truck, why should he spend the time and go to the trouble of learning the machinists' trade?"

The employees were also asked, "What is the best thing all business men could do?" Of those who answered this general question 42.5 per cent. suggested that the employers share profits. Other suggestions were made, but no one of them commanded support equal to that given to profit-sharing.

The employees were also asked to give definite suggestions referring to the concerns for which they worked. Some of these suggestions showed how closely many employees are studying the conditions under which they work. For example, a number of men stated that higher limits for piece work would better the results obtained,—“more work from the fast men and the same from the slow men.”

The point was made that when a trained employee is discharged an investment representing the value of the time required to show him how to do his work is often sacrificed. One employee said:

"I believe the best thing we here could do would be to find some way to avoid hiring and firing so often. Just about the time a man is becoming of some real use, he must often be laid off on account of shifts in how much is produced."

"We should devise means to retain all desirable employees whose period of service extends over a period of several months, because it costs money to educate an employee, and we cannot afford, under ordinary conditions, to let some other concern reap the benefits of the education we paid for."

"We need to make a big effort to keep our trained, efficient workmen, and not keep training new workmen, one after another, in every department. It doesn't pay in labor or material."

One employee asked for a school of mechanical instruction including a free library for the benefit of the employees. Another advised that smoking in company's offices be stepped on the ground that the productivity of every man would thereby be increased, and another emphasized the need of a doctor's office in the factory.

In one plant it was suggested that increased expenditure on common labor would give increased returns, since a two-dollar man employed in helping three or four three-dollar men would more than pay for himself in increase of output.

The questionnaire developed the fact that 49 per cent. of the employees were studying, although the studies were not always connected with their daily work. One man pointed out that for six weeks he had at-

AMERICA'S TRADE WITH INDIA

IN the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Mr. Daniel Folkmar contributes an article in which he points out, in a cautious way, the effect of the war on Europe's trade with India and the immense possibilities of American trade in that country, as he also mentions the fact that the political agitators and revolutionists of India are using the *Swadeshi* (Home Industry Movement) against England, and to some extent in favor of American trade:

British India stands third among the countries of Asia as a buyer of American goods and is the farthest of the Far East from our shores. . . . Notwithstanding the advantage England has over other countries in obtaining the trade of India, British India is already one of the nine or ten greatest purchasers of American goods outside of Europe. In fact, there are only ten countries in Europe which buy more from us annually than does India. But this gives no indication of the vastness of India as a market and the possibilities in the increase of American trade in that country, for the United Kingdom holds at present 70 per cent. of its import trade, and, in fact, more than 95 per cent. of the Indian purchases in the largest line, that of cotton piece goods. . . . India's purchases of British exports are equal to the purchases of Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand, combined. The total import trade of India from Great Britain amounts to \$330,000,000 per year, of which more than \$180,000,000 is for cotton goods. India takes two-fifths of the entire value of the exports of Great Britain to all countries. . . .

The total India imports from Germany and Austria in 1913 were valued at \$55,000,000, which was more than one-tenth as much as all the imports into India from all other parts of the world. In other words, of India's total import trade in private merchandise in 1913-1914, nearly 7 per cent. was with Germany and 2.3 per cent. with Austria-Hungary. At least 75 per cent. of Germany's imports into India were of goods such as the United States should be able to sell. Thirty per cent. of her sales were of metals, including manufactures; 11 per cent. were of cotton manufactures; and 8.5 per cent. were of woollens; these three items making a total of exactly 50 per cent. of the goods sold by Germany to India and being in lines in which we are best able to compete. . . .

British India is the largest buyer in the world of our cheapest cotton goods, excepting only China,—I am speaking of our \$15,000,000 export of unbleached cottons. British India, including Aden, which politically belongs to British India, takes one and a half times as much of our unbleached cottons as all South American countries combined. India buys more than \$3,000,000 worth of our iron and steel manufactures and more than \$3,000,000 worth of our petroleum. Among all the countries of the world, India stands tenth in rank as a purchaser of our lamp oils, and sixth in rank as a purchaser of our lubricating oils, the purchases of the latter

amounting to more than \$1,000,000 per year. In this line India is equalled as a buyer by only one South American country, Argentina.

India is to-day the world's greatest buyer of the goods upon which America's future development largely depends, that is, certain manufactured products. India is the greatest foreign purchaser of European manufactures. . . . India, as an agricultural nation, must buy what America most wants to sell as a growing manufacturing nation. It is simply a case of bringing together the buyer and the seller.

The imports of British India in the fiscal year 1913-1914 amounted to \$752,000,000, and the exports to \$831,000,000. Of the imports, 36 per cent. were cotton goods, a line in which the United States is rapidly increasing its production, while its possibilities as the chief cotton producer of the world are almost unlimited. Second in order in the value of India's imports are metals; manufactures of iron and steel form about 9 per cent. of the total imports. Thus about 45 per cent. of the total imports of British India last year were composed of the classes of articles for which the United States has special facilities of production and ranks among the world's greatest producers, and more than three-fourths of the imports of India were of the classes of merchandise which the United States produces and exports. Yet in spite of this fact, less than 9 per cent. of India's imports in 1913-1914 were from the United States.

The war has disturbed the transportation system of the world. A great many of the British ships formerly used in direct trade between India and America have been requisitioned by the British government. Consequently the freight rate has increased tremendously. America must build up a merchant marine to solve this shipping problem. England will never allow German trade to "come back" to India. France, Belgium, and even England would lose much of their trade with India if the United States gets a good start on it during the war. What really has been the effect of war on our trade with India?

"The latest American figures," says Mr. Folkmar, "available at the Department of Commerce disclose a rapid increase in trade in January and February (1915) as compared with all previous trade, in spite of the decreased trade of the six months ending in December. This increase in the last two months' trade comes despite the fact that shipping facilities between America and India have been worse during these months. . . . The door of opportunity stands wide open at the present moment for great trade with India, and the opportunity will be vastly greater when the shipping problem is solved, as we must and will solve it."

A MUNICIPAL COLLEGE

THE experiment undertaken by the city of Akron, Ohio, in taking over Buchtel College and starting on its foundation a municipal university has attracted attention throughout the country. This is by no means the only institution of the kind. The State of Ohio itself has two others, one at Cincinnati and one at Toledo, while the College of the City of New York has a well-earned reputation extending far beyond the bounds of the metropolis. Yet in the country at large the idea of supporting a college with city money is a new one. President P. R. Kolbe, of the Akron University, contributes to the *Popular Science Monthly* for September a brief exposition of the plan and purpose of his own and kindred institutions.

The keynote of the municipal university, according to President Kolbe, must ever be public service, and that of a kind which "will awaken in our young people a consciousness of their relation and responsibility to the community, and which will actually train them for life and for civic duties."

In reply to the question, Why can a municipal university offer more practical education than other colleges or universities? President Kolbe concedes that as a matter of fact any private college can do as much, but the municipal institution has simply by force of its position heard the call more clearly, and for this reason leads the way. It has two general lines of activities: the training of students and coöperation with city departments and activities. The one line of activity presupposes the other because students cannot be trained for practical life without contact with actual conditions,

while, on the other hand, such contact can only be secured by putting students directly into the activities mentioned, and thus forming the connecting link between city and university.

In the city of Akron a thorough housing survey has been carried on by university students under the joint direction of the Department of Sociology, the Charity Organization, and the Board of Health. As a result there has been a marked improvement in the sanitation of houses and even of whole districts, under the supervision of the building inspector. The city has had the service of a body of capable inspectors at no cost to the city whatever, while the students have received credit at the university for "laboratory work."

All the chemical testing work of the city is now conducted in the university laboratory. Advanced students in chemistry, instead of working at mere theoretical problems, are given actual city testing work. The difference, says President Kolbe, became at once apparent. "A student who plodded through a book problem as drudgery became an active, interested worker in the solution of a real food problem affecting the health of his community. The value of chemistry as an actual factor in life became apparent."

University students helped in a survey of paving conditions in the city. The physical director at the university became city supervisor of the playgrounds, and several of his sub-directors are university students, who are thus taught to study and know city activities and interests and thereby become better citizens, while the city turns to the university for technical advice.

HARVARD'S NEW LIBRARY

DURING the academic year that has just opened the new library building at Harvard,—the Harry Elkins Widener Memorial,—will be used by the student body for the first time. This truly magnificent building is the gift of Mrs. George P. Widener, of Philadelphia, as a memorial to her son, a graduate of Harvard, who was one of the victims of the *Titanic* disaster.

In the *Sewanee Review* Mr. Warwick James Price calls attention to the fact that young Mr. Widener, who was a member

of the class of 1907, had already attained eminence as a book collector, having brought together at the age of twenty-seven first editions of Shakespeare, Milton and Spenser, Johnson, Goldsmith and Gray, Keats and Shelley, Dickens and Thackeray, Meredith and Robert Louis Stevenson. The remarkable collection of standard English authors that Mr. Widener had gathered within so short a time now becomes one of the priceless possessions of Harvard. Indeed, one of the purposes of this great building will be the suitable and permanent housing

of this collection, to which a central section is devoted. Mr. Widener had provided in his will that his library should go to Harvard, but the university was confronted with the humiliating fact that it had no suitable place for the deposit of such a collection. The widowed mother of the donor, by her \$2,000,000 gift, made possible the erection of this beautiful and capacious structure. Mr. Price also points out that quite apart from the Widener collection itself, which is to be the hub and center of the library, there is another matter of great interest to book-lovers and library-users in this building, since here will be applied the "laboratory principle."

Harvard intends to do what Oxford's Bodleian has been doing for centuries, and do it better. An accredited visitor from any country on the globe will find himself as much at home in one of the private rooms of the Widener Memorial as in his own library, and just outside the door he will have immediate access to all the treasures that the Harvard collections contain. In similar fashion the undergraduates are to be provided with such facilities for work among the shelves as have been quite impossible in outgrown, inadequate Gore. If the visiting scholars and the Harvard professors are to have eighty private studies scattered about the building, the students are to have no fewer than 350 little separate "cubicles,"



WIDENER MEMORIAL LIBRARY

each furnished with desk and chair, where they may read in seclusion, with needed volumes on their tables and any other book required close at hand in the stacks.

On the main floor, reached by the steps from the Yard, the memorial feature has its most imposing illustration. The visitor passes through the doors into a vestibule, which opens into a great entrance hall, this in turn leading to the Widener Memorial Hall. This is an apartment measuring 40 by 32 feet, lighted on each side by a court. Beyond is the room for the installation of the Widener collection, a chamber 38 by 60 feet. Here will be placed and exhibited the items which make up a library so striking that none doubts but that it would have come, with only a grant of those years snatched from the man in so horrible a fashion, to be possibly the premier private book collection in the world. Mr. Widener's ambition, voiced with a characteristic modesty, would without a doubt have fully come to pass: "I should like, some day, to own a library of a sort to distinguish me in all the world of books."

RUPERT BROOKE: "THE POET WHOM THE WAR MADE AND KILLED"

ARTICLES have appeared in various magazines in the nature of tributes to that youthful English poet who died from wounds received during the fighting at the Dardanelles. St. John G. Ervine writes in the *North American Review* for September, that it seems incredible "that so much beauty, his physical appearance, and his power to create spiritual loveliness should be destroyed in the very hour of blooming, when he was passing swiftly from youthful wit and cleverness to a man's maturity of feeling." It is the opinion of lovers of poetry that the poems of Rupert Brooke, which he wrote after the outbreak of the war, will move the hearts of men as long as they continue to love their native soil. He has been given a niche of immortality with Keats and Shelley, and with that English soldier-poet who was cut down in his youthful prime,—Sir Philip Sidney. Rupert Brooke was only twenty-seven,—five years younger than Sidney at the time of his death, but death has brought him perhaps equal fame and immortality.

At the outbreak of the war, Brooke obtained a commission in the Royal Naval Reserve and went over to Belgium to aid in the defense of Antwerp. During the winter he was in training at Blandford Camp, Dorsetshire, and in the spring sailed with the British contingent for the Dardanelles. He died on the French hospital ship at Sycros, of blood poisoning, on April 23. It is said that he had a premonition of his death,



RUPERT BROOKE, THE YOUNG ENGLISH POET WHO DIED FROM WOUNDS RECEIVED AT THE DARDANELLES

but he went onward into the valley of the shadow with a song on his lips and a laughing heart. Two sonnets from a group entitled simply "1914," reveal the noble quality of his poesy:

THE SOLDIER

If I should die, think only this of me:

That there's some corner of a foreign field
That is for ever England. There shall be
In that rich dust a richer dust concealed;
A dust whom England bore, shaped, made aware,
Gave, once, her flowers to love, her ways to

roam,
A body of England's, breathing English air,
Washed by the rivers, blest by suns of home.

And think, this heart, all evil shed away,
A pulse in the eternal mind, no less

Gives somewhere back the thoughts by England
given;
Her sights and sounds; dreams happy as her day;
And laughter learnt of friends; and gentleness,
In hearts at peace, under an English heaven.

PEACE

Now, God be thanked who has matched us with
His hour,
And caught our youth, and wakened us from
sleeping,
With hand made sure, clear eye, and sharpened
power,
To turn, as swimmers into cleanness leaping,
Glad from a world grown old and cold and
weary,
Leave the sick hearts that honor could not
move,
And half-men, and their dirty songs and dreary,
And all the little emptiness of love!

Oh! we, who have known shame, we have found
release there,
Where there's no ill, no grief, but sleep has
mending,
Naught broken save this body, lost but breath;
Nothing to shake the laughing heart's long
peace there
But only agony, and that has ending;
And the worst friend and enemy is but Death.¹

Mr. Ervine writes that he went on his way serenely to the end, thinking but little about politics and the causes of the war, certain of only one thing,—his personal duty to his country.

I do not suppose he had thought much about the causes of the war. Politics made very little appeal to him, although, like most generous-minded young men, he was a Socialist. These matters were no affair of his. England was at war, and so he must arm himself. It is said that he had a premonition of his death, and that he went to the Ægean in the knowledge that he would not return. That may be so, for poets have eyes that see and ears that hear; but his knowledge did not diminish the pride of his bearing. He made his end in serenity and proud submission.

ÉMILE CAMMAERT; A BELGIAN WAR POET

MONSIEUR HENRI DAVIGNON has written eloquently of Belgian war poetry in the second July number of *Le Correspondant* (Paris). He finds that the heart of Belgium is indeed reflected in the hearts of her poets,—and her serene, trustful soul. If at first one deems it a paradox to associate together the words of war and the words of poesy, we must remember that poetry is a passion, that must seek and undergo the

deepest impressions in order to convey them. It is for this reason that out of Belgium, the greatest sufferer among nations, there is already springing beautiful and immortal poesy, the "simple flowers of the invincible spring."

The very soil of Belgium has become lyric; in the face of her oppressors the Belgian child can throw in defiance a handful of the unconquerable earth, and remind them that "Mother Flanders can sleep, but die never."

M. Davignon does not agree with those

¹ The Collected Poems of Rupert Brooke will be shortly published by the John Lane Company.

who have said that Belgium must wait until peace has been restored before we shall see her truly national poetry. After her wounds have been healed we may expect "the efflorescence of a heroic literature around the feats of arms of the Belgian Army," but the poetry that is Belgian "flowers amid the smoking ruins." To translate this poetry adequately he deems an ungrateful and a fearful task, because the art of this poetry is the enemy of words,—a matter of rhythm, color, movement and interior vibration, an art that is more comparable to that of the Belgian painters than to literature. Notable among the poets who are writing this intensive national poetry, he desires to call attention to Emile Cammaert, whose recent book "Belgian Poems" has most admirably interpreted the pride, suffering, anger, and hopes of his compatriots.

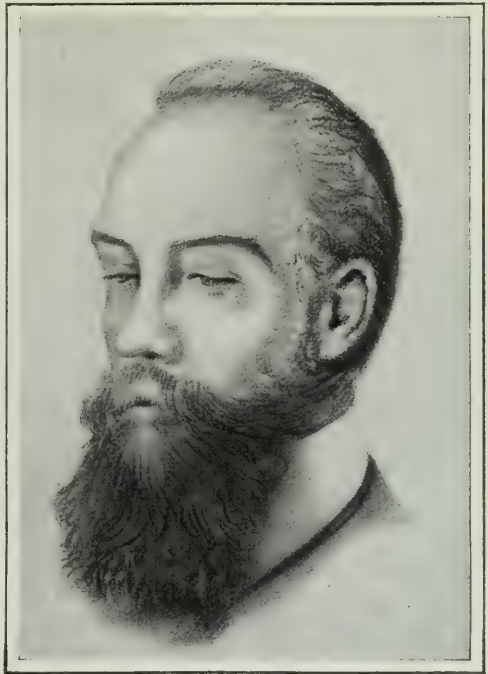
M. Cammaert was born in Brussels on March 16, 1878, and was educated there, becoming in 1896 a student at the new University, where he specialized in geography. In 1899 he was elected Professor of Geography at the Institut Commercial of Mons, and became director of the Bulletin de la Société Royale Belge de Géographie, of which he is now an honorary member. During the following nine years, he published translations of Ruskin, a French translation of the Flemish poet, Guido Gezelle, and did other literary work. He married the English tragedienne, Miss Tita Brand, daughter of Marie Brema, and since 1908 has lived in England writing poetry, translating, and doing a variety of literary work.

As with many others, the first two months of the war left him voiceless, all was given to humble, passionate, and obscure effort to be a single unity in the common task; to resist to the end against the invaders, to offer all sacrifices in the hope of giving the powerful Allies the time to oppose a definite barrier to the enemy. But when all was accomplished, and Belgium traversed and bleeding was no more than a corner of sand on the border of the sea, at the extremity of the impassable lines of the armies of civilization, the poet felt the soul of his country reascend to his throat with love and pride. Here is what he wrote after Antwerp:

"Sing Belgians, sing,
Although our wounds may bleed.
Although our voices break,
Louder than the storm, louder than the guns,
Sing the pride of our defeats,
'Neath this bright autumn sun,
And sing the joy of courage,
When cowardice might be sweet.

To the sound of the bugle, the sound of the drum,
On the ruins of Aerschot, Dinant, and Termonde
Dance Belgians, dance,
And our glories sing—"

Cammaert apologizes for the liberty of his rhythms in these words: "Ma lyre tinte d'une corde, mon vers cloche d'un pied."



ÉMILE CAMMAERT, ONE OF BELGIUM'S WAR POETS

"A Voice in the Desert," pictures in words that seem the echoes of the voices of the dead, the awful desolation of the ravaged fields:

"A hundred yards from the trenches
Close to the battle front,
There stands a little house
Lonely and desolate.

Not a man, not a bird, not a dog, not a cat,
Only a flight of crows along the railway line,
The sound of our boots on the muddy road
And along the Yser, the twinkling fires.

A low thatched cottage
With doors and shutters closed,
The roof torn by a shell,
Standing out of the floods alone.

Not a cry, not a sound, not a life, not a mouse,
Only the stillness of the great graveyards,
Only the crosses,—the crooked wooden crosses—
On the wide lonely plain.

His poem "The Tomb," illustrates his freedom from literary sophistication, his horror of words that are useless, and phrases that are merely musical. He has seen many graves, but one that he will remember as long as he lives, a tomb near Ramscapelle, between two old willows facing a shrine. In this old, small shrine, a little china Virgin "all white and blue in the muddy clay" lifted her serene eyes to heaven.

The English words fail to give the exquisite tenderness of these lines:

L'image immaculée
—Les yeux au ciel, la bouche sereine—
De la petite vierge de porcelaine.

THE NEW BOOKS

AUTUMNAL FICTION

ROBERT GRANT presents in "The High Priestess"¹ a new type of heroine, a Feminist, the intensely modern wife, mother, and artist. Mary Randall is womanly to her finger tips; she is a satisfactory wife, and a wonderful mother. But she is also a talented landscape-gardener, and part of the time she goes on her way attending to her profession, leaving her husband to find his own diversions. As the duties of her profession gradually take more of her time, she introduces into their home her best friend, Sibyl, a dainty, home-loving kitten of a woman. For a time all goes well. Then in Mary's absence a tender infatuation, born half of the warmth of domestic comfort, and half of loneliness, springs up in the hearts of Sibyl and Oliver Randall. The wife returns in time to avert a tragedy; Sibyl marries and takes herself out of the situation, but not before she has laid the blame for the whole affair upon Mary's failure to attend to the profession of wifehood. The rest of the book is devoted to the adjustment of the relations between Mary and Oliver, and Mr. Grant has opportunity to argue the matter of Feminism and marriage out to its logical end. He thinks the man of to-day must choose with open eyes between the old type of woman, who could be bullied, and who merely echoed masculine opinions, and the new woman who has an art or a profession, opinions of her own, and lives much the same life of freedom and intellectual activity that he does. Yet this new woman is *woman*, nevertheless, he hurries to tell us; with something within her "insidious, illogical, insatiable," that demands her mate, and holds him against the lures of all rivals. "The High Priestess" is just a woman after all. This book is absorbing, unusual, thoroughly contemporary, and an exceptional piece of literary artistry.

Mary Roberts Rinehart's new novel, "K,"² is a love story and a good mystery yarn combined. Mr. "K" Le Moyné is apparently an industrious clerk in a gas office. You discover before you have turned many pages that he is really a very great surgeon,—the inventor of a difficult operation which has made him famous. The surgeon disappeared; he was supposed to have perished on the *Titanic*, and a memorial tablet has been set in the wall of his college chapel. Yet here he is,—only thirty, living under an assumed name, lost to the world of surgery. There was a good reason, but Mrs. Rinehart is canny; you have to wait for it. Yet "K" with all his mystery, is hardly the absorbing figure of this splendid story. It is Sidney, the bright, beautiful young girl, who is in training to become a nurse. She is "K's" friend and finally his sweet-

heart; and she creeps into our hearts as one of the real flesh-and-blood persons, who live in the pages of books.

Zane Grey has the courage of his convictions. He believes that there are people living in this intensely modern age who like a good story. And so he proceeds to give them big, slashing melodramatic novels, animated by the most life-like sets of puppets that any novelist ever shut between the covers of a book. "Desert Gold" and "Riders of the Purple Sage" gave him a secure place in the affections of readers of novels,—a place that will not be forfeited upon reading his last novel, "The Rainbow Trail,"³ which continues the story of several characters of "Riders of the Purple Sage." John Shefford, an Eastern clergyman, hears the tale of Fay Larkin from Jane Witherspoon's former rider, Venters; and fired by a dream of romance, he goes to Utah to find Surprise Valley and rescue little Fay, now grown to womanhood. Tas Na Bega, a wonderful Indian, assists him in the search; Withers, a trader, takes him to a secret Mormon village in Arizona, where he meets Mary, the "Sago Lily," a beautiful girl whose identity is concealed in mystery. To find out how the "Sago Lily" led Shefford to Surprise Valley, and of the great joy that came to him when he found the real Fay Larkin, the reader is directed to Mr. Grey's colorful fascinating story.

Mary Hallock Foote's latest novel, "The Valley Road,"⁴ draws in leisurely fashion a fine portrayal of the progress of a family with good old traditions through more than two decades. Henry Scarth, a mining engineer; Caroline, his wife; his son, and a host of relatives and friends make a setting for Scarth's daughter,—the finely-tempered Engracia,—and her love affair with Gifford Cornish. Descriptions of the San Francisco fire, and of Korea at the time of the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese war enliven the story. This work deserves praise for its fine workmanship and the resoluteness with which the author reminds us of the unflinching ideals of our Puritan forebears.

Louisa Alcott's "Little Women" bids fair to have a rival in Ethel Hueston's "Prudence of the Parsonage,"⁵—a story brimming with the fun and frolic of healthy, hearty girlhood. There are five girls, the orphaned daughters of the Reverend Mr. Starr, of Mount Mark, Iowa. "Prudence" is the little mother; Faery, a handsome girl of sixteen, is just naturally smart; Carol and Lark are lovable and incorrigible

¹ The High Priestess. By Robert Grant. Scribners. 530 pp. \$1.35.

² "K." By Mary Roberts Rinehart. Houghton. Mifflin. 410 pp. \$1.35.

³ The Rainbow Trail. By Zane Grey. Harpers. 373 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ The Valley Road. By Mary Hallock Foote. Houghton, Mifflin. 360 pp. \$1.35.

⁵ Prudence of the Parsonage. By Ethel Hueston. Bobbs-Merrill. 347 pp. \$1.25.

twins; and Connie, the baby, is "an odd, sober, sensitive" child, who doesn't know whether she wants to get married or be a missionary when she grows up. A delicate, wild-rose love story, old-fashioned as our grandmother's sprigged delaine gowns, tempers the madcap merriment of the "Parsonage" with the first shadow of separation.

A. Neil Lyons has immortalized the foibles and the humor of the British soldier in the making, in a series of witty character-sketches entitled "Kitchener Chaps."¹ The English "rookies" are decidedly interesting, and in the main, gallant chaps, from the irresistible Sar'nt Majaw, who drills his Lancashire "cloggies" with language "peculiar to his rank," to Private Dodd, the Anglo-Saxon type of a soldier, who wants to go to the front again to "dror me second ration." He is lying in the hospital recovering from serious wounds, when he says: "You see, sir, there's more *peace* for a man at the front. They don't mess a man about so much."

"Shadows of Flames,"² by Amelie Rives, a new, long, emotional novel, tells the story of the love-life of Sophie Talliferro, a vivid, human creature, who quests after perfect love, and finds,—disappointment. Sophie fights gallantly to save her English husband from the morphine habit. After his death she marries an American millionaire and the scene shifts to Newport and New York. Incompatibility severs this second union, and just when Sophie is beguiled by heart-hunger to consider the possibility of a third marriage, Lady Wychcote, her son's grandmother, kidnaps the boy and takes him to England on the pretext that Sophie is not a proper person to take charge of his education. The boy is exposed to a biting rain and gets pneumonia. Sophie hurries to England to nurse him, and finds the peace and joy she had missed in her marriages in a glad devotion to her son. Mrs. Rives' skill in character analysis and her power of dramatic realism give the novel a glowing quality most unusual in modern fiction.

THREE THOUGHTFUL ENGLISH NOVELS

There seems to be a general opinion among English literary men that something is wrong with England. Since the beginning of the War, they have been sending forth their opinions as to just what the matter appears to be. Mr. John Galsworthy, in a stirring novel, "The Freelands,"³ indicts the English land system as the chief cause of the unrest that has risen to the surface of affairs in England time and again during the past decade.

Mr. Galsworthy's book is in a sense propaganda of the new freedom, which he as well as most thoughtful men vision,—the freedom that is not alone for those who are able to buy it,—as is now the case in England,—but the freedom that shall be for all, rich and poor alike. But Mr. Galsworthy's book is more than propaganda; it is a rarely fine novel that grips the imagination

with its fire and beauty, even though the men and women are types of classes and symbols of movements.

He has taken the four "Freelands" and their families for his material. They are: Felix, the successful author, the onlooker who theorizes grandly, but keeps his hands off actual events; John, a man high in government employ; Stanley, a captain of industry, a rich plow manufacturer, and Tod, the hopeless one, the farmer who married Kirsteen, a Celtic woman, whose "career was revolution."

Tod's two children, Derek and Sheila, endeavor with all the zeal and fatuity of extreme youth to put their mother's revolutionary theories into practise. Lady Malloring has trouble with her tenantry; she banishes a girl, who seems at the worst only giddy and foolish; and she evicts a laborer, Tryst, because he, a widower and burdened with a large family, desires to marry his dead wife's sister. Derek and Sheila plead with Lady Malloring in vain. Then they stir up trouble among the tenants, strikes and grumbling; and finally Tryst, incited by Derek, burns down the Malloring hayricks and cow-sheds. Long before this happens, the three worldly brothers have tried to curb Tod's lawless progeny, but Kirsteen has thwarted their efforts.

The revolutionary activities of the two children fail; the tenantry accept the inevitable and return to work. Tryst is arrested and given three years' penal servitude for arson. Derek tries to give himself up as the real perpetrator of the crime, but he is prevented by the sudden death of Tryst, while making a futile effort to escape. The whole affair comes to naught, save as it sets the three worldly brothers,—representing literature, wealth, and officialdom,—to thinking, makes them aware that a change is at hand; that the superior class in England is no longer really *superior*, because their lives demand fewer cardinal virtues,—courage, hardihood, patience, and self-sacrifice,—than the lives of humble laborers.

A love story, sweet as the English hedge-rows in springtime, lifts the hopes of the Freelands to the shoulders of the coming generation, to Derek and Felix's daughter, Nedda, who go away to New Zealand to work out their problems in the atmosphere of democracy. The mother of the four brothers,—Frances Fleming Freeland,—dominates the book. She is England,—this masterful, magnificent old woman with the face of carved ivory, kept "free from wrinkles by sheer will power"; this woman, inordinately concerned with trifles and absurdities, who wanted everything "nice," who left trouble until it was under her nose and then asserted it wasn't there. Galsworthy has never made a finer character-study than this mother of men, whose pride continually rescues her soul from the pits of her weakness.

"The Freelands" begs thoughtful men and women to consider the reconstruction of the world from the "top" down, not from the bottom upwards.

An anonymous book, "The Record of Nicholas Freydon,"⁴ made a sensation in England. It is a biographical story of a man who was born in London, spent his boyhood in Australia, came

¹ Kitchener Chaps. By A. Neil Lyons. John Lane. 222 pp. 50 cents.

² Shadows of Flames. By Amelie Rives. Stokes. 589 pp. \$1.35.

³ The Freelands. By John Galsworthy. Scribners. 412 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ The Record of Nicholas Freydon. Anon. Doran. 376 pp. \$1.50.

back to England, and then climbed slowly up from obscurity and poverty and petty journalism until he lived comfortably and had the acquaintance of the big men who were doing things in the world of his day.

The first thing that impresses you is the apparent truthfulness of the story, but its very plausibility at length arouses suspicion. It is detailed, meditative, discursive, the leisurely tale of one who writes with no end in view save the delight of expression. This Nicholas Freydon is worth while, but he suffers from a certain inertia of spirit, a nostalgia, a nausea at the world, that makes his whole life but a futile experiment which he longs to bring to an end.

He searches for a way out. The mental world fails him; he has probed its sophistry, its contradictions. The world of sense, he disdains; there must be more in life than eating and drinking. Before the spiritual realm, he trembles and wavers. Physical energy does not save him, for he is weak of body, and so he goes once more to Australia, into the "bush" of the coast of New South Wales. There he lives in a tiny cottage, trying to find the "way out" in conditions of primitive life. He dies before the experiment comes to a logical end, but not before he is con-

vinced that he has failed to find the way to peace.

The passages that tie this book together with "The Freelands" for the consideration of the thoughtful are those that discuss the laboring classes in England,—in particular, London's poor. The author of "Nicholas Freydon" sees great virtue in "the decency, the restraint, and the enduring law-abidingness of London's poor in the face of continuous flaunting plenty."

R. A. Foster-Melliard's novel, "Blindstone,"¹ is so full of charm that one forgets to look for flaws. It is a fine story,—one that doesn't sag in the middle or wane in interest. "Blindstone" is a young Englishman whose emotions are difficult to arouse. Real "blindstone" is smelting coal,—anthracite that burns without flame,—"a sack worth a ton of fancy coal," but very difficult to ignite. Richard Trevail is engaged by his elders to marry his cousin, but through a piece of quixotic foolishness he loses her and enters upon a period of adventures that end in his awakening to love and seeking his cousin Hilda, who had patiently waited for her "blindstone." Bits of poetry and occasional stretches of poetic prose lift the book above its rather obvious machinery of plotted events.

CONTEMPORARY BIOGRAPHY

THE great romances of the book-world are biographies. "The Story of a Pioneer,"² the record of the life of the brilliant Scotchwoman the world knows as Anna Howard Shaw, is more vital and thrilling than any manufactured fiction. She came to America in 1851, on the sailing vessel *John Jacob Westervelt*. In 1859, accompanied by her mother and three other children, the youthful pioneer went to live in the wilderness of northern Michigan, where her father had taken up a large tract of land. The family lived in a rude log cabin in the forest, one hundred miles from a railroad, forty miles from a post-office, and six miles from neighbors. At fifteen, Anna Shaw was a school-teacher; at twenty-three, she began preaching and became in course of time a regularly ordained elder of the Methodist Episcopal Church. After astonishing adventures preaching the gospel, she entered the Medical School of Boston University and was graduated as a full-fledged physician in 1885. It was during this period that Dr. Shaw began to lecture for the Massachusetts Woman Suffrage Association, of which Lucy Stone was president. The later phases of Dr. Shaw's life are too well known to require comment. Suffice it to say, that her biography should be in every library. During all the years of a long and useful life, this woman of tremendous force and moving personality has resolutely pioneered the way to woman's liberation and enlightenment.

John Masefield has written a most agreeable book of personal recollections of John M. Synge,³

that fills in the gaps in our hitherto incomplete biographical knowledge of the man. It is interesting to note that Synge was hardly more than familiar with the writings of his supposed masters in art, the writers of the French Decadent School, Verlaine, Huysmans, Mallarmé, et al. In fact, he disliked these writers exceedingly. His favorite author was Racine. The frontispiece for this volume is a reproduction of the splendid portrait of Synge painted by J. B. Yeats, Sr.,

Mr. J. D. Beresford, in his excellent estimate of the work of H. G. Wells,⁴ recently published in the "Writers of To-Day" section of the Home University Library, takes Mr. Wells far more seriously than has been customary of late. He sees that Mr. Wells has written for a definite purpose, never swerving, even in a single volume, from the definite end of the best ideals of civilization, and the enlarging of our intellectual vision. As Mr. Wells has himself said, "Now out of it all arises man, beginning to perceive his larger self, his universal brotherhood, and a collective, synthetic purpose to increase Power and realize Beauty."

In the same series, Mr. F. J. Harvey Darnton presents a brilliant survey of Arnold Bennett's work, and an estimate of the man.⁵ Bennett's career as solicitor, journalist, reviewer, dramatic critic, playwright, novelist, and publisher is spread before the reader. One chapter is given over to the description of Bennett's "Five Towns," the central cities of the great pottery industry in north Staffordshire. Mr. Darnton considers the novelist as a "Five Townsman,"

¹ *Blindstone*. By R. A. Foster-Melliard. Dutton. 340 pp. \$1.35.

² *The Story of a Pioneer*. By Anna Howard Shaw. Harpers. 338 pp. \$2.

³ *John M. Synge*. By John Masefield. Macmillan. 85 pp. \$1.

⁴ H. G. Wells. By J. D. Beresford. Holt. 123 pp. 50 cents.

⁵ Arnold Bennett. By F. J. Harvey Darnton. Holt. 128 pp. 50 cents.

"keen, interested, exceedingly shrewd, very practical, limited in certain directions, rather coarse-fibered in others"; and a "trained manipulator of words." He has tried many flights on many levels of literary art, but it is with the materials of the "Five Towns" that he works most successfully. The best thing Mr. Darnton finds in his work is the spirit of freedom, which is the heritage of Englishmen.

Also, in this series, we have a biography and a critical estimate of Anatole France,¹ by W. L. George,—a difficult task, in view of France's kaleidoscopic changes of front. Before 1898 he was a sworn reactionary. After that year, with its revival of the Dreyfus affair, he became a humanitarian Socialist; and now, in 1915, he has laid aside his well-known theories of pacifism and offered at seventy to draw his sword for his country. Mr. George, somewhat baffled, has been obliged to take his palmer's staff and play the vagabond along the sparkling roads France has traversed. He finds that one cannot place the volatile Frenchman in any one generation; he is the French patriot of to-day, and he is the irreverent, jolly, blasphemous Frenchman of the Middle Ages, just as truly as he is also a sentimental old gentleman with a Gaulish temperament. Mr. George cannot subscribe to his doctrine of love, for France has found nothing "ethereal or symbolic in the union of man and woman."

These volumes are published with portrait of the author and bibliography. Three other books of the same series are now in press,—Joseph Conrad, by Hugh Walpole; Rudyard Kipling, by John Palmer; and John Galsworthy, by Sheila Kaye-Smith.

"Hitting the Dark Trail,"² by Clarence Hawkes, the blind author and naturalist, tells the story of his life. When he was nine years old his left leg was amputated at the knee; at fourteen, while hunting with his father he received a charge of bird-shot in his face, which permanently destroyed his eyesight. From this time onward, his life has been one long, magnificent



CLARENCE HAWKES

(Author of "Hitting the Dark Trail")

struggle against the handicap of blindness. Those who have read his books, "Shaggy Coat," "Master Frisky," "The Little Foresters" and "The Trail to the Woods," realize that the "inward light" shines across every page. This biography is dedicated to Mr. Hawkes' friend, Helen Keller, "with sincere regard and keen appreciation of her brave struggle and wonderful achievements upon the trail of darkness and silence."

POETRY AND THE DRAMA

THEODORE ROOSEVELT selected a poem to serve as an introduction to his recent book on the war,—William Samuel Johnson's "Prayer for Peace,"³ which is now published by the author as the title poem of an attractive collection of verse. "Prayer for Peace" relates the dreams of a man who prays for universal peace. God answers his petition first with a plague that slays mankind; then with a "Truce of Life"; again with the making of one iron nation that "molded spawn of slaves"; and yet again with fear, that fell thickly upon each heart until there was sickening peace. The man awakes from each dream wroth with God. Then the prayer is answered:

"I prayed for peace; God, answering my prayer,
Spake very softly of forgotten things;
Spake very softly old, remembered words,
Sweet as young starlight. Rose to heaven again
The mystic challenge of the Nazarene,
The deathless affirmation:—Man in God
And God in Man willing the God to be. . . .
And there was war and peace and peace and war,
Full year and lean, joy, anguish, life, and death,
Doing their work on the evolving soul,—
The soul of man in God and God in man."

Mr. Johnson's work shows that he is a philosopher turned poet. Beyond the music of the delightful lyric quality of his poems, they set one thinking and cast long shadows in the foreground of memory.

¹ Anatole France. By W. L. George. Holt. 128 pp. 50 cents.

² Hitting the Dark Trail. By Clarence Hawkes. Holt. 176 pp. \$1.

³ Prayer for Peace and Other Poems. By William S. Johnson. Kennerley. 113 pp. \$1.25.

It was written of the Sultan of Seville,
Mu'tamid, that he left some verses behind him,—
"beautiful as the bud when it opens to disclose

the flower; and, had the like been composed by persons who made of poetry a profession and a merchandise, they would still have been considered charming, admirable, and singularly original." These poems have been rendered into English verse from the literal translation of the Afghan scholar, Ismail Ali, by Dulcie Lawrence Smith and bound in a volume together with a biographical introduction that glances lightly over the history of this Prince of Andalusia. Mu'tamid was finally overthrown and died in exile in Morocco, in the later half of the eleventh century. "The Poems of Mu'tamid"¹ are published in the "Wisdom of the East Series," edited by L. Cranmer-Byng and Dr. S. Kapadia.

"The Arrow-Maker,"² a drama in three acts, by Mary Austin, is published in a revised edition. As the play was presented four years ago at the New Theater, in New York, it catered slightly to the popular conceptions of Indian life. The revised edition conforms to Mrs. Austin's ideas, not only of the drama, but of the conditions it presents. The play tells the story of Chisera, a medicine woman of the Paiutes. From early childhood she has been isolated and taught to make "good medicine." To her hut seeking the favor of the gods comes Simwa the Arrow-Maker. He is eager to lead the tribe to battle, and he does not hesitate to woo Chisera in order to win the coveted privilege. At the conclave of the heads of the tribe Chisera dances the Medicine Dance, throws the Sacred Sticks, and Simwa is chosen for the war leader. Later, Simwa weds Bright-Water, the chief's daughter, and casts Chisera from him. She is broken-hearted and refuses to "make medicine." Good fortune forsakes the tribe; they are conquered by the Tecuyas, and Simwa kills Chisera, to save himself, with the magic arrow she had given him in the days of their love-making. The characters of "The Arrow-Maker" are symbolic; Mrs. Austin says that Chisera represents the Genius. The haunting rhythm of the prose, the fine simplicity and noble beauty of the whole conception render this play a most important contribution to American drama.

Emile Verhaeren's new book on the war, "Belgium's Agony,"³ will bring us to a deeper appreciation of the greatest of Belgium's poets—the

prophet of the people, who has in his old age been thrust into the pitiless maelstrom of war. The text is partly prose and partly poetry. He writes of the events that directly preceded the war, of the ground-soil of idealism that nourishes Belgium's pride, of the King, "Albert, the Well-Beloved," who incarnates the Flemish and Walloon ideal of beauty that is never separated from strength; of Ypres, Nieupoort, and Dixmunde, and of the maimed and scarred villages of Flanders; also of that Germany which he calls "uncivilizable," the Germany that is not the real "Fatherland." Verhaeren's poem on the destruction of the Cathedral of Rheims, "La Belgique Sanglante," "Guillame II." and "Ceux de Leige" are included in this volume.

Lord Curzon, of Kedleston, offers "War Poems and Other Translations,"⁴ the proceeds of the sale of the volume to be devoted to the Belgian Relief Fund. The first seven poems are from the French of M. Emile Verhaeren; others are from the works of Voltaire, Angellier, Verlaine, and Alfred de Musset. Plato's "Myth of Er," is rendered in melodious verse, and a selection from the Odes of Horace is given a graceful translation. The freshness of the work and the variety of the subject-matter give this book unusual interest and charm.

"Armageddon,"⁵ a modern war epic, by Stephen Phillips, deals with one of the big questions raised in people's minds by the war: Have we a right to take revenge for atrocities? If Rheims lies in ruins, shall a victorious French army destroy Cologne? The author calls upon the glorious spirit of Jeanne d'Arc, to teach the lesson of the long-suffering Christ to men.

"Because they ruined Rheims, spare ye Cologne."

"Peace Sonnets,"⁶ published by the author, Jessie Wiseman Gibbs, at Villisca, Iowa, are thoughtful contributions to the literature of pacifism. Some of the sonnets deserve sincere praise; others,—because of the artificiality of the sonnet form,—do not fully carry the author's conceptions. The technical faults are balanced by the nobility and idealism of the purpose of the volume,—the bringing about of an era of universal peace.

PHILOSOPHY

THE "Genetic Theory of Reality,"¹ by Dr. James Mark Baldwin, traces the outcome of genetic logic, as issuing in the esthetic theory of reality called *Pancalism*. The theory of *Pancalism* is what Mr. Baldwin calls "constructive affectivism"; that is, making art the highest vehicle of

human apprehension and expression. This volume completes his treatment of genetic logic, the three previous volumes having been published under the title "Thoughts and Things." He finds the genetic movement of thought to issue directly from contemplation that is esthetic in character. Esthetic reason must stand before theoretical and practical reason, because all actual reality takes "on the form of the whole of beauty," and thus Keats' postulate is proven true,—that the only Truth is Beauty. Once we have the beatific vision we are safe; and the idealizing of experience leads us into a new world of successive moments of esthetic appreciations that produce the mystical fervor out of which great dreams are born into realities. This is a gratifying introduction to philosophy, that conducts us to Aristotle, Kant, and Schelling by a little-used highroad of thought.

¹ The Poems of Mu'tamid. Translated by Dulcie L. Smith. Dutton. 60 pp. 50 cents.

² The Arrow-Maker. By Mary Austin. Houghton, Mifflin. 168 pp. 75 cents.

³ Belgium's Agony. By Emile Verhaeren. Houghton, Mifflin. 130 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ War Poems and Other Translations. By Lord Curzon. John Lane. 221 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ Armageddon. By Stephen Phillips. John Lane. 91 pp. \$1.

⁶ Peace Sonnets. By Jessie Wiseman Gibbs. Published by the Author, Villisca, Ia. 75 cents.

⁷ Genetic Theory of Reality. By James Mark Baldwin. Putnam. 335 pp. \$2.

AMERICAN RURAL LIFE

"THE American Country Girl,"¹ by Martha Foote Crow, is dedicated to the seven million country-life girls of America with the hope that they may see their great privilege and do their honorable part in the new country-life era. Mrs. Crow has been assisted in the preparation of this book by many country girls who have written the author letters filled with the details of their lives,—little records of their problems and aspirations. Several letters are published, some brimming with hopes and ideals, others telling a story of drudgery and hardship. In a truly constructive spirit, Mrs. Crow has seen just what these girls need and the ways in which we can help them. She does not think there is a so-called "rural mind" in America, or a distinctive rural personality; therefore the country girl must not be considered as belonging to any class, but just as a human being who lives in the country. The closing chapter gives us "The Country Girl's Score Card" of points of character, the expression of herself in manners, in her philosophy of life, health, relationships with her family and community, the preparation for the home that is to be, and points in qualities for an efficient administrator of a household. This book may be recommended to city girls as well as to country girls. It is a helping hand of quiet wisdom, and inspiration for healthful artistic expression, efficiency, and nobility of character; and it is a clarion call of the Country Life Movement, which is the outgrowth of our conviction that "the profession of agriculture is the backbone of our national life." The author has devoted her life to the education and training of young women, as writer and lecturer, and as a member of the Wellesley and University of Chicago faculties, and as Dean of Women at the Northwestern University.



FRONTISPIECE OF "THE AMERICAN COUNTRY GIRL"

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Books Relating to the War

The Pentecost of Calamity. By Owen Wister. Macmillan. 148 pp. 50 cents.

A thoughtful study of the tragedy of the war and especially of the part played by Germany in the conflict. One of the most significant of American contributions to the war literature.

L. P. M. The End of the Great War. By J. Stewart Barney. Putnam. 419 pp. \$1.35.

The tale of an American millionaire inventor who perfects a device which, if used, is certain to bring to the nation employing it supreme world power. A story of fascinating interest.

To All the World (Except Germany). By Arthur Edward Stilwell. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 251 pp. 87 cents.

Mr. Stilwell, who is an eminent American

financier, discusses in this book frankly and courageously many of the most serious and perplexing problems to which the people of Europe and America are compelled to address themselves in the present crisis. As a citizen of a neutral country, Mr. Stilwell is able to point out certain needed reforms in the usages of all nations.

Problems of Readjustment After the War. By Albert Bushnell Hart, Edwin R. A. Seligman, Franklin H. Giddings, Westel W. Willoughby, George Grafton Wilson, Emory R. Johnson, and Caspar F. Goodrich. Appleton. 186 pp. \$1.

Essays on various problems of the war by authoritative American writers: Professor Franklin H. Giddings, Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, Professor Emory R. Johnson, Professor Edwin R. A. Seligman, Professor George G. Wilson, Professor W. W. Willoughby, and Rear-Admiral Caspar F. Goodrich, U. S. N., retired. The chief matters discussed by these writers are the economic and social readjustments likely to take place after the conclusion of peace.

¹ The American Country Girl. By Martha Foote Crow. Stokes. 367 pp. Ill. \$1.50.



THE LADY ABBESS OF OULTON, THE MOTHER PRIORRESS OF YPRES (STANDING) AND THE LADY ABBESS OF YPRES
(From "The Irish Nuns at Ypres")

Aunt Sarah and the War: A Tale of Transformations. Putnam. 112 pp. 75 cents.

A story that voices the patriotic spirit and aspirations of the British people, men and women, in these days of war.

The Soul of the War. By Philip Gibbs. McBride, Nast. 371 pp. \$1.75.

The special correspondent of the London *Daily Chronicle* tells in this book simply and graphically what he saw of the human side of warfare on the battlefield under heavy shell fire, in bombarded towns, in field hospitals, and amid great movements of troops. Like all observers who have been eye-witnesses of the horrors of the war, Mr. Gibbs declares his purpose to "dedicate head and heart to the sacred duty of preventing another war like this."

I Accuse (J'Accuse!). By a German. Doran. 445 pp. \$1.50.

The original edition of this work, published anonymously in Switzerland, has been suppressed. From a neutral standpoint the book can hardly be regarded as radical in any sense. It purports to have been written by a German who has held high rank in the Imperial service. He warns his countrymen of the mad follies to which German imperialism is sure to lead them. The appendix contains translations of the famous speeches of Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg, delivered on August 4 and December 2, 1914, and the circular note of December 24.

The German War and Catholicism. Published under the direction of Mgr. Alfred Baudrillart. Paris: Bloud & Gay. 316 pp. 50 cents.

Letters and addresses by distinguished Roman Catholic authorities, published under the patronage of the Catholic Committee of French Propaganda of Paris. A supplement entitled "Album Number 1" contains reproductions of photographs of ruins at Louvain, at Rheims, and elsewhere, showing the destruction of churches occupied by the German army since the beginning of the war.

Reports of the Violations of the Rights of Nations and of the Laws and Customs of War in Belgium. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 113 pp. 12 cents.

An official translation of the Belgian reports concerning alleged German atrocities, with extracts from the pastoral letter of Cardinal Mercier.

The Irish Nuns at Ypres. By D. M. C. Introduction by John Redmond. Dutton. 193 pp. \$1.25.

In the old Flemish town of Ypres there has existed for about two hundred and fifty years a community of Irish nuns,—Les Dames Irlandaises of the Royal Benedictine Abbey of Ypres. This community was founded during the reign of Queen Elizabeth by certain noble Englishwomen,—Lady Percy, Lady Montague, Lady Fortescue, and others. In 1682, Lady Flavia Cary was chosen as the first Irish lady abbess, and since that time there have been only two abbesses who were not Irish, and the majority of the members of the community have always been Irishwomen. One of the minor tragedies of the present war was the destruction of this old Benedictine abbey at Ypres, during the fighting in and around the city in October, 1914. The good sisters escaped with their lives, and, after ministering for a time to the needy and the wounded with such scanty succor as they might find, were sent across the Channel to find refuge with another community of Irish nuns at Oulton. The story of the destruction of the abbey and the experiences of the nuns has been published in a volume, "The Irish Nuns at Ypres," with an able introduction by John Redmond, the Irish Nationalist leader. No one could fail to be moved by the stories of the courage and devotion of this little band of intrepid women.

History and Description

Serbia: Her People, History, and Aspirations. By Woislav M. Petrovitch. Stokes. 280 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This history of the Serbian people was prepared by a Serb for circulation among English-speaking peoples. It voices the aspirations of the Serbian peasantry and explains the national attitude.

Poland and the Polish Question: Impressions and Afterthoughts. By Ninian Hill. Stokes. 335 pp., ill. \$3.

A sympathetic history of Polish history by an English writer who visited the country during the summer of 1913 and became interested in the

then existing environment of the Poles in Prussia, Russia, and Austria.

A Short History of Belgium and Holland. By Alexander Young. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 586 pp., ill. \$1.25.

A convenient, brief history of the Netherlands, first published in 1886, with the final chapter partially rewritten and brought up to 1915.

Modern Germany and Her Historians. By Antoine Guillaud. McBride, Nast. 360 pp. \$2.25.

A striking presentation of the influence exerted in modern Germany by five of the nation's historians: Niebuhr, Ranke, Mommsen, Sybel, and Treitschke. The work of each of these historians is treated at some length after a general introduction pointing out the comparatively recent growth of German patriotism. The author is Professor of History at L'Ecole Polytechnique Suisse.

The Germans and Africa. By Evan Lewin. Stokes. 317 pp. \$3.60.

An informing statement of German aims on the Dark Continent and the methods by which German African colonies were acquired. There is an introduction by Earl Grey.

Old Calabria. By Norman Douglas. Houghton Mifflin. 352 pp., ill. \$4.

In this volume is embodied a mass of Italian lore such as seldom comes to the inhabitants of English-speaking countries. With Mr. Douglas travel in this little-known portion of Italy is evidently a keen delight, which he is eager to share with his readers.

Our Chinese Chances Through Europe's War. By Paul Myron. Chicago: Linebarger Brothers. 220 pp., ill. \$1.50.

In this volume an American author arraigns the rule of Yuan Shih-kai, whom he denounces as a traitor to his country and the greatest tyrant of history. The chief purpose of the work, however, is to set forth American trade opportunities in China.

The Near East from Within. Funk & Wagnalls. 256 pp., ill. \$3.

This is a revelation of political intrigues in the Balkan peninsula from 1888 to the present time. The author is said to be "a high political personage," and he discloses an intimate knowledge of the late and the present Sultans of Turkey, King Ferdinand of Bulgaria, King Carol of Rumania, Enver Pasha, and the Young Turk party.

An Englishman's Recollections of Egypt, 1863 to 1887: With an Epilogue Dealing With the Present Time, 1914. By Baron de Kusel (Bey). Lane. 352 pp., ill. \$3.

Baron de Kusel was in charge of the English customs at the time of the revolt of Arabi Pasha and he took an important part in the events of 1882. Unlike most English writers, the Baron is sympa-

thetic towards the Khedive Ismail. An epilogue deals with Egypt's situation in the present war.

The Jewel City. By Ben Macomber. San Francisco: John H. Williams, Sheldon Building. \$1.25.

A succinct guide to the Panama-Pacific Exposition, containing descriptions of the several buildings and their contents, with lists of awards to exhibits.

Biography and Memoirs

Reminiscences and Letters of Sir Robert Ball. Edited by W. Valentine Ball. Little, Brown. 408 pp., ill. \$5.

The memoirs of the celebrated English astronomer who died two years ago.

Joseph Chamberlain: An Honest Biography. By Alexander Mackintosh. Doran. 416 pp. \$3.

Mr. Mackintosh, well-known as the London correspondent of the *Aberdeen Free Press*, gives special consideration in this book to Mr. Chamberlain's personal relations with Mr. Gladstone, Lord Salisbury, and other contemporary statesmen.

The Life of Henry Laurens, with a Sketch of the Life of Lieutenant-Colonel John Laurens. By David Duncan Wallace. Putnam. 539 pp. \$3.50.

A sketch of one of the diplomatists of the revolutionary period in American history, who was also an eminent South Carolinian. Laurens' own writings, of which he left a considerable mass, have until the present time remained generally unknown even among historical students. In this volume Dr. Wallace has utilized them to good purpose. The book is equipped with a bibliography and index.

Napoleon in Exile at Elba, 1814-1815. By Norwood Young. Winston. 349 pp., ill. \$5.

An entire volume is devoted to the Elban exile, of which comparatively little note has been taken by most historians. In the view of Mr. Young, however, this episode is important as an aid to the understanding of events at St. Helena, since it reveals to us Napoleon the man, unencumbered by the weight of the Empire.

Napoleon in Exile at St. Helena, 1815-1821. By Norwood Young. 2 vols. Winston. 715 pp., ill. \$7.

The six years of exile at St. Helena are covered in two volumes, published just one hundred years after the defeat at Waterloo.

The Psychology of the Kaiser. By Morton Prince. Badger. 112 pp. 60 cents.

A psychologist's explanation of the connection between Emperor William's "divine right" delusions and the outbreak of the present war.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—FAVORABLE OPPORTUNITIES FOR INVESTMENT DURING THE WAR CONDITIONS

THE bi-monthly statements of the Comptroller of the Currency show a rapid upward trend in the deposit line on the national financial chart. But this covers only national banks. A similar tendency is exhibited by trust companies, State banks, and savings banks. Bankers are puzzled as to the use of their idle funds, and, as gold flows in in steady stream from Europe, preach the dangers of inflation with its attending evils. Many individuals are drawing only 2 per cent. on their deposits, some 3 per cent., and others, who have a few thousand dollars in savings banks, are satisfied with 4 per cent. The percentage of deposit increase is greater in proportion to the earnings of the country than in years. Why?

Decline Before the War

The war aggravates this situation, but it has not produced it. It existed in 1913 and was rather pronounced in the early part of 1914. The trend of bonds has been downward pretty much since the summer of 1909. Nearly half of the decline between August that year and August, 1915, occurred prior to the end of 1913. The constant increase in the rate at which new capital had to be borrowed caused a readjustment in older bonds, while the shrinking margin of surplus over interest requirements took away a certain amount of buying power that could always in the past be depended on in the big reinvestment months of June and December. Irritation among investors over political tendencies, too numerous instances of stewardships lightly held, and the sequel of receiverships, all contributed to the paucity of demand for investment securities. Other factors were the expanding loans of the insurance companies, which reduced their surplus for bonds, and the loss by savings banks of large deposit accounts.

If the investor a year ago had taken these facts into account and had calculated that a 10-point drop in bonds brought them on the bargain counter his judgment would have been expensive. Many of the highest-grade securities have continued to sink under for-

eign liquidation and an idea that high interest rates are to obtain after the war until the average is 6 to 7 points below the first level of attractiveness. This steady concession is, of itself, a deterring influence, as few have the courage to buy in the face of constant depreciation.

Why Not Keep Capital at Work?

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS believes that investors who already are fairly familiar with the marketplace and have sound opinion of values must admit that going prices discount a great deal of trouble, most of which is not likely to happen, and that whether securities react a few points or more they have reached a level where it is safe and sane to buy them for their income and future possibilities. It has never seemed to us a sound business principle to cling to a deposit account at 2 or 4 per cent. and refuse to buy on a 4½ or 5 per cent. income basis the very bonds which a bank buys with this same deposit. Not all of the deposit should be removed, as every individual should have his affairs in as liquid condition as possible, for it might not be convenient to sell a bond or foreclose a mortgage in an emergency. Certainly, however, from 50 to 75 per cent. of the idle capital ought to be working at the best rates possible with safety. Whether this is in railroad or industrial bonds, municipal, public-utility or industrial bonds, guaranteed real-estate mortgages, or straight mortgages on town or farm property, it makes no difference. The idea is to use the talents and not bury them in the ground for safekeeping.

Safe and Profitable Railroad Bonds

On this belief we have prepared this month a list of investments which can be recommended not only from the standpoint of safety, but from that of substantial return and of a readjustment of incomes to the demands of higher living costs.

Let us assume that the investor has a preference for railroad bonds and wants a return on his capital averaging about 5 per cent. For him the following twelve listed

bonds, costing approximately \$10,000 and yielding just over 5 per cent., may be recommended:

A \$10,000 RAILROAD-BOND INVESTMENT

	Present		High
	Price	Yield	Price
Atchison adj. 4s.....	80	5.00	97½
Atlantic Coast Line col. 4s	80	5.00	97½
Central Pacific 4s.....	84	4.75	102¾
Ches. & Ohio Gen. 4½..	85	5.30	109
C. Mil. & St. Paul ref. 4½	87	5.15	90
Col. Southern 1st 4s.....	85	4.75	99½
Erie prior lien 4s.....	78	5.15	102
Illinois Central ref. 4s..	83	4.75	100½
Kansas City S. ref. 5s...	87	5.75	103
N. Y. Central con. 6s....	104	5.75	104¼
Southern Rail. con. 5s...	98	5.10	119
Southern Pac. ref. 4s....	84	4.75	97½

Four bonds in this list are in effect first mortgages. The others, with the exception of the Atlantic Coast Line collateral 4s and the New York Central convertible 6s, are second mortgages. In none of them can there be said to exist any element of risk to principal. The members of this group have been selected with regard to the amount of decline already experienced and the likelihood of rebound when European selling and a readjustment of interest rates takes place. This may be a matter of several years. Possibly it may be five years. That is not a long time to retain one's investment. It is a safe assumption that a bond like Atchison adjustment 4s, which normally would sell at 90 or better, may sell at 85 in 1920. This is a minimum prediction. If it did, the present buyer could sell then and have had a 6 per cent. return on his investment. In such a bond as the Central Pacific 4s a five-year ownership, dating from 1915, might easily show a return over the period of 6½ per cent. We do not believe these bonds will return to their former price basis and are not encouraging purchases on that precedent. But that they will, within a reasonable time, be much more valuable than they are to-day, is, with us, a firm conviction.

For another group of investors who prefer stocks to bonds, mainly on account of their exemption from income tax, a group of twelve high-class railroad and industrial preferred issues is suggested, as follows:

A PREFERRED-STOCK INVESTMENT

RAILS	Present			High
	Price	Rate	Yield	Price
Atchison	98	5	5.10	108
Baltimore & Ohio...	71	4	5.60	100
Great Northern.....	118	7	5.90	190
Norfolk & Western..	80	4	5.00	98

¹ Since 1907. In 1906 when a special distribution was made the stock sold around 350.

Reading 1st Pf.....	82	4	4.85	97
Union Pacific.....	80	4	5.00	118

INDUSTRIALS

American Sugar....	115	7	6.10	141
Baldwin Locomotive.	106	7	6.60	110
Car and Foundry...	116	7	6.10	125
Central Leather.....	105	7	6.50	111
General Motors....	115	7	6.10	115
U. S. Steel.....	113	7	6.20	131

Many of these railroad preferred stocks are as stable as bonds. The amount earned applicable to their dividends is so great that there has been no question of payment even in the very depressed period since 1913. For instance, last year the Atchison dividend was earned nearly five times over. In the poorest year it has had in a decade the Baltimore & Ohio covered its preferred dividend five-fold. In 1913, Reading earned fourteen times its preferred stock requirements and Union Pacific that year earned \$36,777,000 for dividends only amounting to \$3,981,000 and in 1915 had a surplus over preferred stock payments of \$27,000,000. The rates on all of these stocks are not subject to increase and the Union Pacific distribution case established the legal precedent that they cannot share in equities with common stocks. They must be sought solely for their safety and good return and, as with the bonds enumerated above, the added possibility of a substantial appreciation in market value.

Most industrial stocks pay dividends of 7 per cent. The average yield is about 1 per cent. greater than on railroad preferreds of equal standing. This expresses the greater risk and the wider fluctuations in earnings applicable to dividend payments. Last year the United States Steel Corporation did not earn its full preferred dividends, though in the previous four years this was covered two to three times over. This year and next it will probably show an enormous surplus over these requirements. The dividend is always fortified by a strong surplus put by in fat years. American Sugar preferred, held by thousands of America's shrewdest investors, is sounder than many industrial bonds. General Motors preferred earned its dividend six times over in 1913 and 1914, and for the year to July 31, 1915, covered it nearly twenty-times. In fact, the company earned \$5,000,000 in excess of the amount necessary to retire the entire outstanding preferred of \$15,000,000. So it will be seen that the element of risk in this group is not very great.

As a principle of scientific investment equal amounts of railroad and industrial preferred stocks should be purchased, for in this

way advantage is taken of all possible phases of prosperity attending the country's affairs.

Reference has recently been made in this department to the stability of bonds of so-called public utilities. No investor can afford to overlook them in his review of the present bargain counter of securities. While many of the very best of these bonds are not listed they have had a higher degree of marketability during the European liquidation

than high-grade savings-bank railroad mortgages. The *Electrical World* finds that \$375,000,000 of electric light and power first-mortgage bonds declined an average of only a point from January, 1914, to the end of the first year of war, while twenty-five representative railroad bonds in the same months lost an average of 9.61 points. This is sufficient comment on the stability of the former grade of securities.

II.—INVESTMENT QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 667. SECURITIES FOR INCOME AND THE PARTIAL PAYMENT PLAN

I am enclosing some clippings, which will explain my venturing to address you on the subject of investments. I find myself possessed of a small sum of money, which I accumulated with the idea of protecting myself against possible illness. It is easily possible for me to live on considerably less than my yearly income, but needless to say, I do not do so. A spasm of thrift took possession of me recently when glancing at the advertisements in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*,—particularly those pertaining to the partial payment plan, and others offering high interest rates. Now, my ignorance on such matters is profound, but somewhere I imbibed a distrust of any investment offering more than 4 or 5 per cent. at the most. I am absolutely dependent upon my own exertions for present and future support, and if you would interest yourself to the extent of advising me as to the enclosed, I shall feel greatly obliged.

It is not altogether a misfortune that you have come to feel more or less distrust of investment securities offering a higher return than 4 or 5 per cent. For the average person of small capital, possessing little knowledge of the characteristics of the various types and classes of investments, and no experience in the ways of the marketplace, the standard 4 and 5 per cent. securities are, on the whole, the safest things to put savings into,—that is, if the circumstances of the investment require that it be kept all of the time in reasonably liquid form. On the other hand, if convertibility into cash is merely a secondary consideration, 6 and even 7 per cent. may be obtained,—preferably in quiet, unlisted municipal or first mortgage real estate securities,—with perfect satisfaction.

As for the partial payment plan, we look upon it with a great deal of favor as a means of encouraging thrift and combining saving with investment. This plan as conducted by a number of reputable brokerage houses throws as many safeguards as possible about transactions in active market securities. It is a plan which we do not believe ought to be employed for the purchase of speculative securities,—in fact, if it were to be employed at all in circumstances such as you set forth, it should be in connection with only the most solid and best established dividend paying stocks and amply secured bonds.

No. 668. STANDARD BONDS OF INTERNATIONAL DISTRIBUTION—"WAR ORDER STOCKS"

Will you kindly advise whether you consider this a good time to invest in such bonds as Northern Pacific prior lien 4's for a quick advance. What can you advise regarding the war munitions stocks that have already made such sensational advances? Is there still a chance to make money in them, or is it best to let them alone?

Northern Pacific prior lien 4's represent a class of securities that would scarcely be purchased in any circumstances for a "quick turn" in the market. Nevertheless, we believe that, if purchased at prevailing low prices they ought in time to show substantial appreciation. They are now nearly four points below the high price of the current year, and over six points below the high price at which they sold during the year 1914. One essential reason for this decline is that the bonds have figured quite prominently in the liquidation of American securities that has been conducted by European investors during the last few months. As pointed out elsewhere in these pages, it is possible that there may be a continuance of this foreign liquidation for a time yet, and that the prices of standard American bonds of international distribution, like the Northern Pacific 4's, may go still lower, but there are indications that the heaviest volume of selling is past, and it is difficult to believe that securities of this quality will be obtainable on much more favorable terms than those now offering, unless something unforeseen occurs to upset present calculations.

Stocks in the industrial category that are now being referred to as the "war order stocks" we believe to be dangerous for the average man to undertake to handle. It is almost impossible for anyone to analyze their status accurately, and in many respects their purchase partakes more of the nature of an out-and-out gamble than anything else. As a group, they have been bid up to an absurd level of prices, and they are unquestionably in unstable equilibrium.

No. 669. GROUNDS FOR SUSPICION

I have had offered to me as a good investment some stock in an industrial concern. The company which makes the offer issues an indemnity bond guaranteeing to buy back the shares at par one year from date. I should like to know whether such a bond affords me any protection, and whether it indicates an investment of merit.

Quite the contrary, we think. In fact, whenever we come across one of these "indemnity bonds," or so-called "guarantees," from experience we are led to suspect the bona-fides of the proposition. The scheme is worked so many times in connection with irresponsible and even fraudulent promotion propositions that it calls in every instance for very careful investigation, to say the least. In its essence it is neither practicable nor sound finance.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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TERMS:—Issued monthly, 25 cents a number, \$3.00 a year in advance in the United States, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Cuba, Canada, Mexico, and the Philippines. Elsewhere, \$4.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second class matter under Act of Congress, March 3, 1879. Entered as Second Class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English REVIEW OF REVIEWS, which is edited and published in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 30 Irving Place, New York

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE FIRST MEETING OF THE NEW NAVAL CONSULTING BOARD AT WASHINGTON, ON OCTOBER 6

This board, created by Secretary Daniels, has for its object the testing and development of inventions capable of being used in our national defenses. At the first meeting, Thomas Edison (seated in the picture on Secretary Daniels' right) was elected Chairman, and Peter Cooper Hewitt, of New York, vice-chairman. The board has approved a plan for the establishment of a laboratory for research and experiment.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LII

NEW YORK, NOVEMBER, 1915

No. 5

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Beginning
a Year of
Politics*

It has not been possible since the outbreak of the European war to arouse much interest in strictly partisan politics anywhere in the United States. But with the beginning of November we shall have party issues steadily increasing in prominence until the Presidential election occurs a year hence. The distinctions between our parties are not profound, nor are they wholly sincere. The parties are all made up of the same kind of people, whose political programs are not sharply divergent, excepting only for the Socialists. There are, doubtless, certain differences of tendency between the two chief parties. Yet to a great extent American politics is more than ever a big game, in which party contests have no more intrinsic quality of principle or policy at stake than is to be found in the rivalry and partisanship aroused by the final games in the world's series of the champion baseball teams. Politics, like baseball, is for some people a practical business and for others a diversion from private routine. With most of the party managers and "small-fry" politicians, politics is a business in which they make what they can out of offices or in other ways.

*States, and
the Party
Incubus*

The pretense that our political parties are sincere, serious, and patriotic, existing for the sake of important convictions about public policy, is mostly sham and hypocrisy. Party machines, with their control of candidacies and their interference in the business of local and general government, are in the main pernicious in their methods and results. Perhaps the most important of the issues to be dealt with this year in the few State elections of 1915 is that which came before the people of California on October 26, touching this very matter. It was proposed to adopt a plan by which the people of Cali-

fornia could deal with State matters on their direct merits, without the intrusion of those irrelevant national divisions called "parties," which have no proper relation to the government of a commonwealth. Before this magazine reaches its readers, therefore, the voters of California, men and women, will have accepted or rejected the bills to make State elections non-partisan, and to do away with party designations on the ballot.

*Non-Partisan-
ship in
California*

Governor Johnson, who was re-elected one year ago by a plurality of 188,000 votes, has actively championed the proposed laws, and passages from his argument in their favor are quoted on page 607 of this REVIEW. Other advocates of the bills were the Hon. Horace Davis and former Mayor Edward R. Taylor, of San Francisco. Whether the referendum will have gone for or against non-partisanship in State matters, thousands of local officers in California are now and will continue to be chosen without reference to party politics. This movement was under way in the State even before woman suffrage had been achieved. It used to be the universal practise in this country to shut out from every office, however local in its nature, the members of the national party that chanced to be the minority party in the State or community. Officers had to be selected from one-half of the people, instead of from all the people. The State lost the services of competent men for no reason whatever save the supposed exigencies of party organization. In California to-day, Democrats are under no disability as regards the holding of local offices from the mere fact that their party is now in the minority of the State's voters. The election of October 26 will have determined whether or not the same principle shall be extended to members of the Legislature and to State executive officers.

*"Odd" Years
for State
Matters*

We have learned to govern some of the larger cities of the country, as well as many of the smaller ones, in a greatly improved fashion by taking the affairs of municipal corporations out of the ruck of Republican and Democratic machine politics. In the State of New York, partisanship in municipal and State affairs has always been a fraud, and has always meant collusion behind the scenes, with the bad kind of bipartisan boss government so eloquently described and denounced by Senator Root in his capacity as chairman of the recent Constitutional Convention. It was proposed in this magazine,—and also by the editor in certain suggestions made for the convention's work,—that one of the greatest reforms that could be adopted in New York would be the simple device of electing the Governor and other members of the State government in the "odd" years, rather than the "even" years. In every even year we elect all the members of the lower house of Congress; in every alternate even year we elect the President of the United States; while any given State must elect a United States Senator in two out of every three even years. The election of Senators by the people removed the only reason for choosing members to the State legislatures as Republicans or Democrats or Progressives. This is a hard doctrine for the politicians; but it is a necessary doctrine for efficient State government. If woman suffrage in California should so operate as to put State affairs upon their own true basis, it will be much the best thing that woman suffrage has yet accomplished in any of our States where it is practised.

*Issues
in Massa-
chusetts*

Massachusetts, having clung to its ancient system of annual elections, has even now an opportunity to deal directly with State affairs in the odd years. This happens to be a year in which the people of Massachusetts seem to be considering the affairs of the commonwealth, rather than the questions that are to come before Congress in December, or before the voters in the next Presidential election. Nominally, the Massachusetts election is one of parties. But the voters are likely to cast their ballots with State issues chiefly in mind. Governor David I. Walsh, who is near the end of his second yearly term, has been nominated by the Democrats for the third time. He is held in high estimation as a man and as a Governor. Through the predominant action of

western Massachusetts in the Republican primaries, the nomination for Governor was accorded to Mr. Samuel W. McCall. Mr. McCall was for a number of years a respected member of Congress; and he is one of the typical Massachusetts "scholars in politics," having written years ago the *Life of Thaddeus Stevens*, and more recently that of Speaker Thomas B. Reed. Both Republican and Democratic conventions in Massachusetts refused to take up the prohibition movement, and the Prohibitionists are in the field with a very able candidate of their own in the person of Mr. William Shaw, long associated with Dr. Francis E. Clark in the Christian Endeavor movement.

*Leaders
Adrift*

It is quite uncertain what the Progressives as a distinct party will accomplish in this Massachusetts election. Their candidate is Mr. Nelson B. Clark. It is reported that the Hon. Charles Sumner Bird, who on one occasion as Progressive candidate for Governor polled more votes than the Republican candidate, is now supporting Mr. McCall rather than Mr. Clark. He finds the Republican platform Progressive both in spirit and in its explicit program, and he thinks it better to help elect McCall than to divert votes with the result of electing Walsh. Curiously enough, ex-Governor Foss, who was Walsh's predecessor, and elected three times as a Democrat, is now in the Re-



Copyright by Marceau, Boston

HON. DAVID I. WALSH, GOVERNOR OF MASSACHUSETTS

publican camp, and he sought the nomination this year on the prohibition issue. It was reported that the Progressive campaign would in its closing days bring Mr. Roosevelt and other national leaders to Massachusetts; and the suffrage issue was pending.

*National
Questions
Raised*

Senators Lodge and Weeks were bringing national party questions into the campaign, and this was thought in some Republican quarters to be of doubtful advantage. Walsh and the local

Democrats were standing on their record, and relying incidentally upon the prestige of President Wilson. Both Republicans and Democrats are in favor of a constitutional convention and biennial elections. The Democrats have a radical program of modern social reform, as advocated by Governor Walsh, including old-age pensions and new forms of popular education. The Republican platform demands various State reforms, but gives special attention to the national tariff, measures for increase of the army and navy, a national corporation law, and national regulation of the labor of women

and children and of the divorce question, while carefully saying nothing about woman suffrage or prohibition. Thus the Massachusetts election of November 2 may furnish some hints as to the strength of national parties; but these will not be conclusive in their bearing upon the Presidential election next year. Even though many Progressives should follow Mr. Bird in voting for McCall, we should still have to await the candidates and platforms of 1916 before announcing the disappearance of the Progressives as a strong separate party. Massachusetts, like California, will have learned the value of separating local and State is-

sues from national ones. If Walsh should be elected, it may not be so much because he is a Democrat and a supporter of Wilson's policies, as because he is this year running for Governor upon strictly State issues, while McCall is on a platform that talks about the tariff, Mexico, national defense, and a number of other things that belong to the government of the United States rather than to that of the commonwealth. But the State in any case will have a good Governor.

*Reform
in
New York*

The people of the State of

New York are giving an illustration of the advantages of doing State business in odd years. It is true they are not electing a Governor, but they are voting upon a new State constitution, which was undergoing a wide discussion last month upon its pure merits. If the convention had been held next year, and its great work had been submitted to the voters next autumn rather than this, the thing would have been lost sight of,—subordinated to the partisanship of a Presidential year. Although the Republicans had a majority of the members of the conven-



HON. SAMUEL W. M'CALL
(Republican candidate for Governor of Massachusetts)

tion, the work was not done in a partisan spirit, and a large majority of the Democrats in the convention joined their Republican colleagues in favoring the submission of the proposed revision to the voters of the State. The discussion has, upon the whole, been able and intelligent, both in the press and on the platform. Particular elements and interests do not like some things in the new instrument, and will therefore try to defeat its adoption at the polls. But a majority of the best minds of the State are in favor of accepting the convention's work. Its one great merit is that it provides a simpler and more effective framework of



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MRS. JOHN RODGERS, JR., ADDRESSING A CROWD OF VOTERS AT MILITARY PARK, NEWARK, N. J., OCTOBER 18, THE DAY BEFORE ELECTION

government. If adopted, it can be amended from time to time in particular respects. The very circumstances under which the convention did its work, and under which the State has been debating the results, ought to make it plain to the leaders of constitutional reform in New York that all important State matters should be dealt with in the years when national matters are not under consideration. New York ought, in the near future, first to put State elections in odd years; and, second, to adopt the California plan of omitting party designations from the voting papers in purely State and local elections.

The Eastern Suffrage Campaigns

The campaign for woman suffrage, this summer and fall, in four important Eastern States has further illustrated the advantages of dealing with matters that are not of a partisan nature, in years when partisanship itself is in abeyance. The question in each of the States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts took the form of a vote upon the adoption or rejection of a suffrage amendment to the State constitution. In New York, the submission of such an amendment to the voters had been ordained by the legislature, apart from the work of the convention that submits an entire revision of the State's organic law. Suffrage

will be voted upon separately,—that is to say, upon a distinct voting paper. If the work of the Constitutional Convention should be rejected, the suffrage amendment might nevertheless be carried, in which case it is simply added to the old constitution. If the general revision should be accepted, the future electorate would nevertheless depend upon the results of the separate voting upon woman suffrage. We will offer no prediction of any kind as to the voting in New York, whether on the new constitution or on the suffrage amendment.

Aspects of the Contest

The most striking things about the suffrage campaign have been, first, the dignity and good manners of the discussion on both sides, and, second, the public's tolerant but indifferent mood. The politicians have, in the main, come out for suffrage merely because they did not wish to give offense. The newspapers have been exceedingly polite in almost every case. The suffrage leaders are entitled to the utmost praise for their fine temper, and for the tact with which they have made friends by avoiding the ill-judged methods used by suffrage campaigners in England. But the vast majority of women in the State of New York have seemed wholly indifferent both to the "suffs" and to the "antis." Probably the greater num-

ber of men have doubted the wisdom of woman suffrage as an immediate thing, while not wishing to seem ungenerous, and while conceding that the movement was destined to succeed sooner or later. That many of the women leaders were dead in earnest, nobody could deny. But even the friends of the movement who were keen observers of public sentiment were obliged to admit that, so far as the public was concerned, the agitation in the State of New York seemed to be light-hearted and superficial, rather than profound. It had little of the intensity that the prohibition movement gains in States where a fight is on.

*Opening
Guns in
New Jersey*

The suffrage leaders had regarded their prospects as decidedly better in New Jersey than in New York, Pennsylvania, or Massachusetts. They were glad, therefore, that the New Jersey election came first,—being set for October 19, while the others fell upon the regular November election day. Great was their elation when President Wilson (who keeps his voting place at Princeton, N. J.) decided to cast his ballot in favor of the suffrage amendment. This announcement was not made until October 6, and naturally enough the cynical were inclined to disparage. President Wilson had been so firmly opposed to the movement of the suffragists in favor of an amendment to the national Constitution, that the least he could do,—so said the critics,—was to vote in the affirmative when

the question came up as a State issue in New Jersey. Secretary Garrison, who votes as a Jerseyman, also came out in a good-tempered statement to the effect that he could see no great harm in woman suffrage and was going to vote for it; while the Secretary to the President, Mr. Tumulty, who votes in Jersey City, had led the way by making his announcement well in advance of the oth-



MRS. LILLIAN F. FEICKERT
(President N. J. State
Suffrage Association)



MRS. M. C. VAN WINKLE
(President of Woman's
Political Union of N. J.)

ers. The "antis" sneered more or less gently at all this, and reminded one another that the pins had been set up for Mr. Wilson's renomination, and that in view of the fact that several million women in the Western States have the vote, no candidate of any party could go on record as this year opposing suffrage in his own State. Nevertheless, the "suffs" were greatly enheartened. And the beautiful weather of mid-October witnessed in New Jersey the liveliest suffrage campaign in the history of the United States. Thus, up to the 19th.

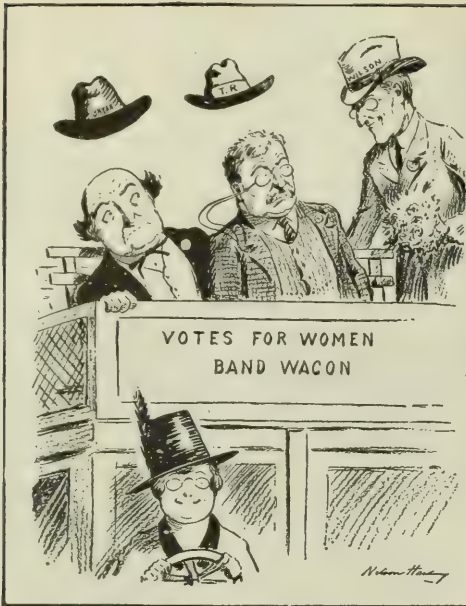


NEXT TIME!

From the *Tribune* of Oct. 20 (New York)

*Sweeping
Defeat*

On the morning of the 20th it was found that nearly 327,000 votes had been cast in New Jersey, of which 135,800 were for the amendment and 190,800 against it. The number of votes cast for all candidates in the Presidential election in New Jersey, three years ago, was 432,500. Every county in the State gave a clear adverse majority, except one, and its vote is the smallest of any. So great a change as woman suffrage would bring about in an old, conservative, and densely peopled State like New Jersey might be expected to require a number of years of consideration before finding a majority ready



"LOOK WHO'S HERE!"
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)

to try it. All things considered, the suffragists made a remarkable showing. Since they are much in earnest, they have ample ground for their determination to try it again a few years hence.

Some Reflections

The suffrage campaign in Pennsylvania had abler and more enthusiastic newspaper support than those in New York and Massachusetts. It had been expected that the results in New Jersey would have some sort of influence upon those in the other three States. This plainly was a confession that the voters were not actuated by very firm convictions. Regardless of the results this year, the cause of woman suffrage has made one admitted gain everywhere in the country,—namely, it is conceded that whenever any considerable proportion of the women themselves are clearly committed to suffrage a large majority of men will be ready to vote favorably on the question. Most men in the Eastern States have yet to be convinced that women in general wish to have the duties of political action imposed upon them. Many men would say that their opposition to suffrage is wholly in defense of women, and in no sense antagonistic to women. The results of the voting in Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts, on November 2, will be noted and studied with keen interest by the whole country.

*Maryland in
Search of
Reform*

An outline of the main facts in the party contest for the Maryland Governorship was given in these pages last month. Maryland has always been a State in which partisanship and professional politics have unduly disported themselves,—much to the disadvantage of the solid interests of the excellent people who make up the commonwealth. More important than the rivalries of candidates and party leaders just now is a movement at the head of which appears the name of President Frank J. Goodnow, of the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore. Previous to his recent acceptance of the Johns Hopkins presidency, Dr. Goodnow had been one of the legal and political advisers of the President of the Republic of China. He returned last month from a long summer vacation devoted to helping Yuan Shih-kai at Peking, and found that the Democratic convention of Maryland had made a new place for him to fill. He was asked to head a Commission on Economy and Efficiency, which should make a survey of the State government, and recommend the abolition of useless boards and commissions. In short, he was to propose some of the reforms which New York is hoping to bring about with the adoption of its new constitution. Dr. Goodnow has accepted the appointment, in a letter that does him great credit. He hopes that the legisla-



IN EXPERT HANDS

(Dr. Goodnow asked to do some pruning in Maryland government)

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

ture will appoint a non-partisan commission to deal with these matters, and that the work begun at the instance of the Democratic Convention may be turned over to a board having the whole State behind it. Here again is evidence of a desire to dignify the work and business of a State government; to put it upon its own basis; to deliver it from the shackles with which party machines have hampered it.

The Kentucky campaign has been pushed with vigor by the opposing candidates for Governor, Augustus O. Stanley and Edwin P. Morrow. The *Courier-Journal* has not given us quite as good an understanding of Mr. Morrow's methods and arguments as of Mr. Stanley's; but this is not surprising. The most commendable thing about Mr. Stanley is his ability to deal straightforwardly with the matter in hand. When, at Washington, he served as chairman of a committee that investigated the tricks and manners of industrial monopoly, his mind was fixed upon the one great duty of regulating the trusts and protecting the nation. But when in Kentucky he runs for Governor, he looks directly at the things to be done at home; and talks everywhere of the need of good roads, better schools, and economy and efficiency in the management of the business of the State. So far as we can judge from the Kentucky newspapers, Mr. Stanley has not been making his campaign on the strength of what he did at Washington, nor upon the policies and prestige of the national Democratic administration. Good roads and good schools are the sort of things that a Kentucky Governor should be concerned about. Senator Ollie James and the other Kentucky statesmen at Washington can fitly maintain the Kentucky point of view as regards national legislation and Democratic policies,—though Stanley will be missed.

These statesmen will be amply occupied during the year to come. When Congress meets in regular session on Monday, December 6, it will not be the same body that adjourned on the 4th of March. In that first Congress of Mr. Wilson's administration the Democrats had the overwhelming majority of 147 in the House of Representatives. That was the Sixty-third Congress, elected at the same time as the President, in November, 1912. The Sixty-fourth Congress, which will meet for the first time next month, was elected in



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AUGUSTUS O. STANLEY

(Who expects to be Kentucky's next governor)

November of last year. It has a Democratic majority of only twenty-five. The Speaker will again be Mr. Champ Clark, and the floor leader will be Mr. Claude Kitchin of North Carolina, who succeeds Mr. Underwood as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. Mr. Underwood, it will be remembered, takes his seat in the Senate from Alabama. Although the Democratic majority is so greatly reduced in the House, it has been increased in the Senate from ten to sixteen. The Wilson administration had its way very easily with the more numerous branch of the Sixty-third Congress, but had some nerve-straining fights to carry its measures through the Senate. It will have an easier time henceforth in the Senate, and will probably be able to hold together its sufficient working majority in the House. We shall be closer next month to the questions that Congress will have to deal with, and shall give them due attention in these pages. Meanwhile, as everybody knows, two subjects of great moment and concern will come up for prompt and pressing treatment,—namely, the military condition of the country in view of world affairs, and the finances of the country in view of alarming deficiencies of public income. It is said that the Ship Purchase bill will be brought forward again, and perhaps a bill providing new tests for immigrants. But revenue and defense will undoubtedly be the foremost topics.

Congress Soon
to Assemble



CHEAP ENOUGH
From the Star (St. Louis)

*Defense
Measures To
Be Debated*

Unquestionably the country is preparing for a great debate of this subject of national defense from several standpoints. Two classes of people have made up their minds, while the greater number of people are waiting to be convinced. There are alarmists who would go to any length and incur any expense to make the country ready for defense against no particular enemy, but rather against perils that inhere in the unstable condition of all the rest of the world. There are others who think this the worst time possible to build up armies and navies, and who are more than ever convinced that "preparedness" is somehow identical with militarism. We are publishing in this number of the REVIEW a very significant article from the pen of United States Senator Albert B. Cummins, of Iowa, dealing with this subject of national defense and the related topic of national revenue. Senator Cummins is a man who thinks before he speaks, but who has always had the courage of his convictions. He is the foremost representative of advanced Republicanism in the Middle West. His article was not written until a number of days after the Administration program calling for great enlargements of the army and navy, and vast military expenditures, had been authoritatively announced.

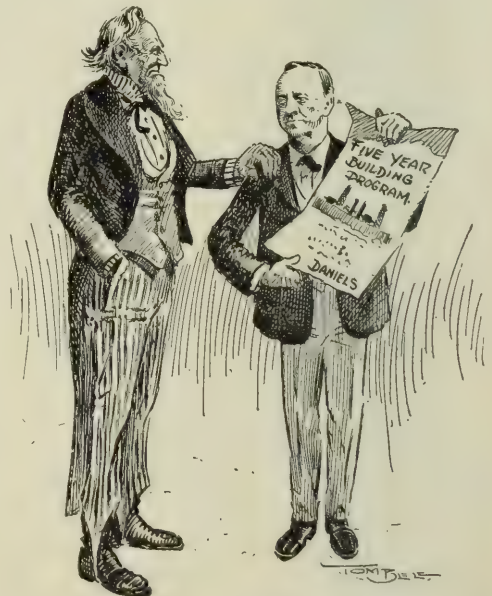
*Senator
Cummins'
Views*

There has been a current impression that the Republicans would very generally favor an almost unlimited program of military ex-

penditure, and that the President would have to rely upon Republican votes to carry the army and navy bills through Congress. Senator Cummins is clearly in favor of facing the whole subject upon its merits, but at the present moment he is not inclined to go as far as the leaders of the National Security League, nor does his mind seem to be working in accord with the Garrison and Daniels programs as adopted by President Wilson. His article, of course, speaks for itself. It does not oppose a moderate naval extension, or a stiffening-up of the land forces. Possibly some readers may regard the remarks of Senator Cummins as affected to a certain extent by his candidacy for the Presidential nomination. But there is nothing in his statements that has the air of a bid for popular support. He merely speaks his convictions.

*Democrats
and Current
Issues*

It is agreed upon all hands that President Wilson is to have the Democratic nomination. Mr. Bryan has come out in opposition to the Administration's army and navy proposals, but he has hitherto professed the utmost loyalty to President Wilson himself. Party lines are more likely to be defined in the approaching debate upon tariff and revenue legislation than in that upon national defense. Already it is announced that the Democrats have yielded ground on the sugar question, and will repeal their enactment of



LET THE NAVY FIT THE NATION

UNCLE SAM: "Go ahead, Josephus! We've got the money, we've got the men, but we need the ships."

From the Sun (Baltimore)

1913 which puts sugar on the free list in March of next year. This will mean the saving to the Government of perhaps \$60,000,000 a year in income, while encouraging the beet-sugar industry of the West and rescuing what is left of the Louisiana cane industry. It will also have a favorable effect upon agriculture and business in Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines. Some of Senator Cummins' suggestions regarding sources of public income are of timely interest, as for example his proposal to put a heavy tax upon war supplies. It is likely enough that the party in power will find itself confronted by a fairly cogent and united opposition before the next term of Congress is at an end. And out of the conditions that will be developed in Congress the Republicans may find the chief items of a platform,—and the platform may help to find a candidate!

*Presidential
Primaries*

It is to be remembered that new methods of presenting candidates have been coming into existence, and that these will be in active operation long before the approaching session of Congress is at an end. For example, the Presidential primary will be held on March 14 in Minnesota. Before that time the Minnesota Republicans will be stirred up on behalf of several candidates, and their expression of preference is bound to have influence. A week later, March 21, North Dakota will hold a Presidential primary, and other parts of the country will be glad to know how men are thinking and feeling out on the prairies. In April, several Western States will go through the same proceeding, electing delegates to the national conventions and expressing preference for candidates. Senator Cummins' own State of Iowa will on April 10 elect Cummins delegates, according to uncontradicted statements. The South Dakota primary occurs on the 4th of April, and that of Nebraska on the 20th. Illinois, Wisconsin, and Oregon, if we mistake not, will again have April primaries, as in 1912. Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire had April primaries in 1912, and will undoubtedly have early dates next spring for these preliminary proceedings.

*Candidates
Soon to
Appear*

Thus by the 1st of May the country will know a good deal about Republican sentiment as respects personalities. The Ohio primary, in which Mr. Taft met his Waterloo in 1912, was in that year held on May 21, and will probably occur at about that time next year.



© Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

HON. JOHN W. WEEKS

(The Massachusetts Senator who is a Presidential candidate)

Indiana and Michigan have since 1912 adopted Presidential primary laws for use next spring. The California primaries will occur on May 9. The State of Washington has not provided for a Presidential primary, nor has the State of Kansas. Maine is one of the States that since 1912 has adopted Presidential primary legislation. It has been both affirmed and denied that Senator Borah has withdrawn his preliminary candidacy, and that he and his friends prefer Senator Cummins. Of the candidates West of the Mississippi, however, Mr. Cummins is the one who shows strength,—this being due particularly to the fact that his record is agreeable to the Progressives. Senator Sherman and Mr. Mann of Illinois have been mentioned, and Mr. Fairbanks, formerly Vice-President, is said to have support in his own State of Indiana. Of the earlier Ohio candidates, only ex-Senator Burton remains in the field. Governor Brumbaugh and Mr. Knox have been mentioned in Pennsylvania, and in New York the name of Senator Root is most frequently heard. The only New England candidate who stands out before the

country is Senator Weeks of Massachusetts. It is quite possible that the primaries may not bring out the candidate who will ultimately receive the nomination. There is an undercurrent of talk in favor of Justice Hughes; but it is also plain that he could not encourage a movement in his favor, and that his nomination could only come about as a spontaneous act of the convention. There is always much inquiry and curiosity regarding the part that Colonel Roosevelt may play in next year's election. He is intensely opposed to the methods and policies of the present administration, and it is said that his name may be presented in some of the Republican primaries. But it is also declared, on the other hand, that the Progressive party and the "Bull Moose" emblem will be maintained, in readiness for separate action, unless Republican candidates and platforms meet the full approval of those who supported Mr. Roosevelt three years ago.

President
Favors
'Preparedness'

It may be taken for granted that President Wilson will make a good statement to Congress in favor of the defense measures that the Administration has decided to recommend. This country stands for peace, at home and every-

where. But it will be more influential on behalf of disarmament and world harmony, if it is free from apprehension on its own account. We owe it to the cause of world peace to be vigorous and efficient. If one admits the thesis that it is right for some Americans to be trained to fight in case of need, there can be no very serious error in the view that enough Americans should be trained to make real defense possible. The Administration has a plan for having a large number of young men quickly trained, for purposes of a reserve force. It is believed that railroads and other large employers could coöperate in having their men given the opportunity to join training camps. Senator Cummins especially notes the fact that such a reserve could be recruited much more easily if it were not liable to be called out to suppress riots or interfere in industrial situations such as that in Colorado last year.

The
Actual
Proposals

It is not understood that Secretary Garrison's plan for an enlarged regular army and a partly trained reserve is in accord with the views of the General Staff. Those who think the Garrison plan extravagant would be appalled by the cost of what the General Staff



ADVENTURES IN BLUNDERLAND.—(AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICAN PREPAREDNESS)

JONATHAN: "Where do I come in?"

JOHN BULL: "You can see where you GO in unless you secure a better sword."

From *Illustrated Weekly* (London)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

PRESIDENT WILSON LAYING THE CORNER-STONE OF THE \$750,000 MEMORIAL AMPITHEATER AT THE ARLINGTON NATIONAL CEMETERY, ON OCTOBER 13. SECRETARY OF THE NAVY DANIELS, WHO IS STANDING DIRECTLY BEHIND THE PRESIDENT, MADE THE PRINCIPAL ADDRESS

deems requisite for national safety. The navy program as announced calls for a five-year building scheme that would give us three or four ships of the largest type every year, a fleet of a hundred submarines, and numerous destroyers and vessels of other types. Building and maintenance will make the navy cost \$1,000,000,000 in five years. There are those who decry the suggestion that bonds might be issued to pay for this enlarged navy. And if the times were at all normal their arguments would be sound. But the times are the most perilous and uncertain that the modern world has known anything about. The European countries are piling up great debts to carry on war. We might well afford to incur a moderate debt in taking out an insurance policy to protect the country's peace. Senator Cummins remarks that at the end of the war the European nations will be exhausted, and that no nation in the near future would be likely to attack us. As he means it, this is wholly true. On the other hand, if the war should end at no very distant date the whole world would be on a fighting basis as never before. Mexico is exhausted, but it has far more men hardened and trained to arms than three or

four years ago. Sometimes the control of affairs in a militant country happens to fall into the hands of a rash element, which makes foreign war without just cause.

*Naval
Defense
Essential*

The best naval authorities declare that our sea power has declined most deplorably in the past year or two. European navies, in spite of their losses, are growing more powerful and efficient, through building submarines and other types of warships faster than they are sacrificing them. With rigid economy, and some changes in the revenue laws, our national income will reach the level of our necessary outgo for ordinary purposes. The extraordinary bills, for national defense, might in view of essential facts be met by an issue of bonds. An American public that has money to lend to European governments would much rather lend to Uncle Sam. Whatever may be thought of a large army, there is a clear and definite demand for a navy that will enable this country to help secure the freedom of the seas. We have reason to invest in a navy as a protector of our coasts and a guarantor of our commercial interests.

The
President

The President will speak in New York to the members of the Manhattan Club on November 4, in order to give to the country his matured views on the subject of preparation for defense. This will be a full month before Congress meets; and evidently the President and cabinet have been "feeling out" public opinion and getting the debate started well in advance, so that there may be better hopes of speedy and decisive action when Congress meets. On October 6 it was announced that the President would be married in the near future to Mrs. Galt, of Washington; and the affair has naturally aroused much kindly public interest. Undoubtedly the President's great anxiety to maintain the rights of neutrals and uphold the humane principles of international law had, during a period of some months, subjected him to a severe mental and physical strain. He is well aware that the times are perilous, and must be so till the world is ready to accept peace and adjust its quarrels. But suspense over the outcome of an attitude we had assumed towards Germany, on behalf of neutrals at large, has been relieved by a substantially complete acquiescence in our view regarding the time-honored rights of travelers at sea. Thus the President shows relief of mind and higher spirits, and there is less appearance of tension in his utterances and attitudes. His speech to the old veterans on September 28 was very felicitous. "Democracy," he said, "is the most difficult form of government, because it is the form under which you have to persuade the largest number of persons to do anything in particular." In an address to the Daughters of the American Revolution, on October 11, he was at his very best. Like Mr. Roosevelt, he moralizes continually, and he does it also in fine phrases, with much wisdom of analysis. In his speech of October 11, he said:

We are not trying to keep out of trouble; we are trying to preserve the foundations upon which peace can be rebuilt. Peace can be rebuilt only upon the ancient and accepted principles of international law, only upon those things which remind nations of their duties to each other, and, deeper than that, of their duties to mankind and to humanity. America has a great cause which is not confined to the American continent. It is the cause of humanity itself.

Our
Trade
Subject

Meantime, for more than a year we have submitted to a complete and arbitrary regulation of our trade with all foreign countries by the British Government. And, singularly enough, we have borne this, at a loss of many millions of dollars to American citizens, while our State Department authorities have "stood pat" on the assertion that the things done under British Orders in Council are wholly illegal, and quite of the same character as the things about which we quarreled with France and fought with England a hundred years ago. Sometimes an unreasonable position wins by the sheer persistence with which it is asserted and maintained. Thus it has been said that we must postpone consideration of our discussion on these matters with England, until after we had ceased to discuss details regarding submarine warfare with Germany. A better argument would have put the matter exactly the other way. Germany's submarine campaign was undertaken expressly because of British policies in restraint of neutral rights on the seas. Would there have been a *Lusitania* incident if we had, at the proper time, demanded of England a respect for the rights of neutral commerce on the seas, while also warning Germany against violating neutral rights?

The
"Note" to
England

From time to time, for months past, we have been told that a "note" of cumulative indignation and of formidable length was about to be sent to England. Finally, on October 11, it was stated that the note had been finished by the State Department and would be sent almost at once, being in the President's hands for final revision. On the 20th the newspapers reported that the President was working over this note on the train, the day before, when returning from the trip to Princeton to cast his vote in favor of woman suffrage. We have no desire to see the United States engaged in controversial discussion with England and her Allies, and earnestly hope that trade disputes may be adjusted in good temper and on right principles. But we think it would have been better either to have abandoned our contentions or else to have maintained them promptly and



A caricature of President Wilson in a series published in *Kladderadatsch* © Berlin, entitled "Our Contemporaries"



© Geo. Grantham Bain.

PRESIDENT WILSON AND HIS FIANCEE, MRS. GALT OF WASHINGTON, AS THEY APPEARED AT A BASEBALL GAME IN PHILADELPHIA LAST MONTH

vigorously at the time when we first declared our views. It is extremely difficult to understand why we should enter now upon the discussion of British policies at sea that have become fairly established through our apparent acquiescence in them during many months.

This Country's Actual Position We have to ask ourselves some searching questions in all sincerity. If Germany seemed hard to deal with, and if German public opinion seemed embittered against us, was it not largely due to the fact that we were demanding that Germany observe every jot and tittle of international law, while we were submitting without complaint to an unlimited interference with neutral rights at sea on the part of Great Britain? And at the very same time were we not ourselves violating the spirit of neutrality by greedily seeking immense profits in the business of supplying Germany's enemies with munitions of war? For better or worse, we have established our moral position. We are identified

in the most colossal way with the cause of the Allies. The official representatives of England and France who came here recently on a successful mission to secure financial credit and support with which to carry on the war, were received with ovations. The head of that war mission sat at Washington on the bench of the Supreme Court, by the side of the Chief Justice. Lord Reading is Lord Chief Justice of England, and is in every sense worthy of the highest personal and official courtesy when he comes to America. But we are supposed to be a neutral country; and if the president of the great supreme court of Germany that sits at Leipzig should come here to borrow money and strengthen the sinews of war for his country, he would seem to be entitled to expect the same kind of treatment that was shown to Lord Reading. Would he receive it? It is not necessary to pursue this discussion. It is merely desirable that we should think clearly and candidly, and not deceive ourselves as to the bearings of our recent conduct, whether as a government or as a business community.



A SOUTH AMERICAN VIEW OF UNCLE SAM'S SETTLEMENT OF THE SUBMARINE QUESTION WITH GERMANY

UNCLE SAM: "Go ahead! They won't bite anymore."

THE NEUTRALS: "But he may be chaining them only to put us off our guard!"

From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Aires)

"*Britannia
Rules the
Waves!*"

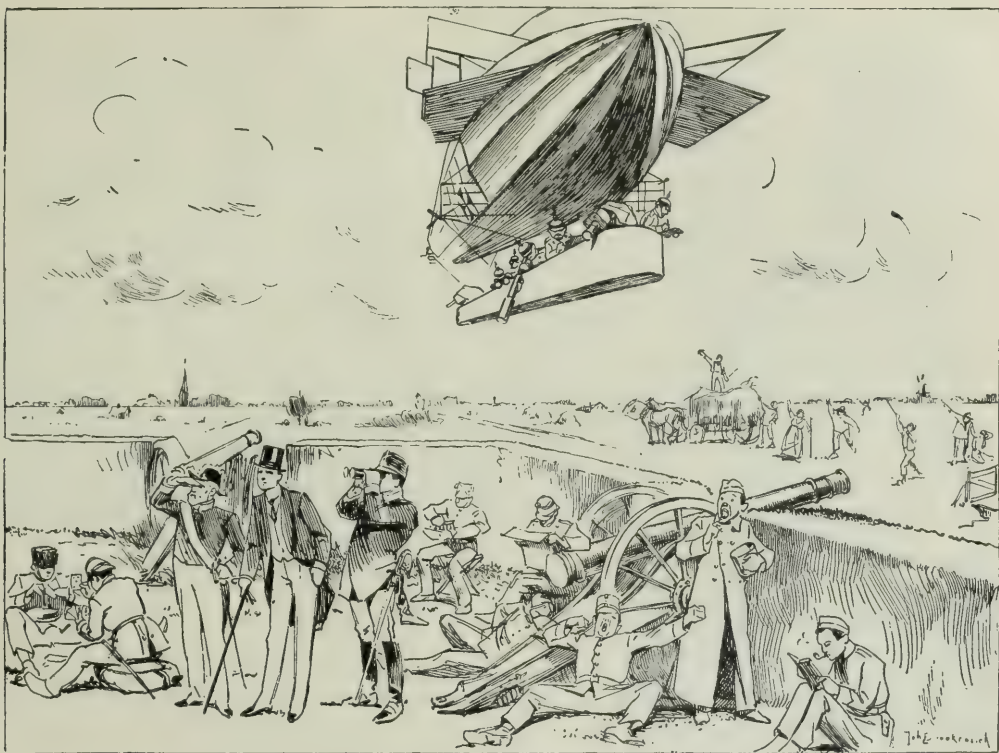
The people of the United States long to see Europe at peace, and have the kindest feelings towards the industrious and home-loving inhabitants of every one of the countries and nationalities of Europe and of Asia. But America has become deeply involved in the cause of the Allies. We have abandoned our rights of trade not only with the ports of Germany, but have submitted to a full control by England over our trade in neutral ships and non-contraband goods with Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Holland. It is too late now to seek a restoration of our trade rights, because these smaller neutral countries of Europe have themselves practically accepted the conditions imposed upon them by the Allies. It is pretended in some quarters that England has deliberately cut us off from certain kinds of trade with Sweden, while permitting her own merchants and manufacturers to carry on the very traffic that we have been denied. But it is wholly improbable that anything of this kind has happened as an intended policy. England's one consistent motive has been to keep supplies from reaching Germany. She has sought the end, regardless of the means.

Force is
Supreme in
Wartime

All that Germany, in the beginning, asked from Belgium was to be allowed to run cars along Belgian railroads, and to walk along Belgian highways. The Germans have always held that if they had not taken the Belgian route the French and English would inevitably have done so before the war was over. Circumstances alter cases, and the analogy between Belgium and Greece is not exact. Yet in many respects the same principles are involved. England and France, in order to head off the German expedition to relieve Turkey, have been marching across a corner of Greece as a short-cut to aid the Serbians. This is without permission, and against the protest of Greece as a neutral. The Greeks, of course, have not resisted; first, because their councils are divided, and, second, because their coasts would be at the mercy of the British, French, and Italian navies. The whole situation illustrates the point that military necessity has no scruples about international law. Since war goes by the principle of force, war does not respect the rights of neutrals unless it fears the power of the neutral whom it offends. The Germans violate international law when they send Zeppelins over Dutch territory to raid London and the English coasts. But Holland cannot afford to quarrel with Germany, and the Dutch officials turn their backs and shut their eyes. Nor, on the other hand, can Holland afford to quarrel with England, when the so-called "blockade" of Germany is in reality an illegal regulation of Dutch trade. Sweden is arguing with England, but is without recourse. There was a chance in the early part of the war for neutrals to come together and make a clear statement of the rights of over-sea commerce that they would undertake to maintain at all hazards. But nothing was done about it, and it is quite too late to flaunt just now the tattered and dishonored flag of neutral rights at sea. This may sound cynical, but it is the truth.

Mr. Simonds
on the
War

Mr. Simonds writes for us this month, as heretofore, his remarkably lucid and able analysis and narrative of the actual war situations in Europe. His view that the great superiority of the Allies in men and resources must triumph in the end is not altered by any of the recent ups and downs of the struggle. He does not think that the Russians have been fatally struck or seriously discouraged; and he regards the great German drive into Russia as a costly failure in



ZEPPELINS OVER HOLLAND

OFFICIAL NETHERLAND: "In Heaven's name do not let it be known that we have seen anything in the sky."
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

the long run, because it has not accomplished that which it undertook. He believes that Germany's task of holding her extended lines will be increasingly difficult. He does not regard the new Balkan developments as in any way having a conclusive bearing upon the larger issues of the European war.

*Is England
Doing Her
Part?*

The main task for England, in the fighting sense, is to support General Joffre to the utmost against the Germans in France and Belgium. Otherwise England's greatest obligation is to keep on with what she has already been doing so magnificently,—namely, to maintain the cause of the Allies with her great navy, her financial credit, and her ability to command and transport supplies of all kinds. It is like the English to find fault with themselves, and to create Parliamentary crises, when at intervals one thing or another has not gone well. But nothing could be more mistaken than to suppose that the British Empire is flunking, or that its performances, even in the past year, have been hopelessly inefficient. Britain's navy, at this moment, holds all the seas, and domi-

nates the trade of the world without a serious question on anybody's part. It took us a long time in the Civil War period to create a large and efficient Northern army. England's recruiting problems have been very much the same as ours would have been under similar circumstances. In the end we had to resort to conscription, and England may have to do the same. But they are making a great and notable effort to avoid it if possible. Zeppelin raids have been increasing in seriousness, and we refer to them more in detail elsewhere. From the war standpoint these raids have hurt Germany and helped England, because they have done so much to arouse British sentiment and to stimulate recruiting.

*The Mistake
in the
Balkans*

Evidently there have been great blunders, from first to last, in the planning and execution of the Dardanelles campaign. In every great war there will be mistakes on both sides. The diplomacy of the Allies in the Balkans has also been deeply disappointing. But it is not easy to fix blame where the complications have been so baffling, and where, on



A HEART-TO-HEART TALK, IN WHICH JOHN BULL CHIDES HIMSELF FOR THE MESS HE HAS MADE IN CARRYING ON THE WAR

J. B. to J. B.: "England expects—"
From the *Sun* (New York)

both sides, there are many parties to the negotiations. There were eleven powers intensely engaged in these Balkan negotiations. Every one of the eleven had some motives and objects unlike those of any of the others. The Allies lost their one opportunity when Russia had swept down to the Carpathians, and Austria-Hungary seemed to be prostrate, while Serbia had regained her prestige. A supreme statesman or diplomat in England or France or Russia would have joined the outstretched hand of Venizelos at that moment, and brought the whole Balkan group into action against Turkey and Austria. This would have made the Dardanelles campaign successful, and would have put Turkey out of the war. It would have prevented the Armenian massacres. It would probably have saved Russia from her subsequent retreat and humiliation. It would have led Hungary, and perhaps Austria, to make separate peace. It was vastly more important to have obtained the active support of the Balkan states at the right time than to have brought Italy into the war for the sole purpose of taking some bits of ter-

ritory away from Austria. Italy's claims clashed with those of Greece and Serbia, and rendered practically impossible a restoration of the Balkan league that might have brought the war to a speedy end by crushing Turkey and helping Russia at the crucial moment. The mix-up grew beyond diplomatic remedy.

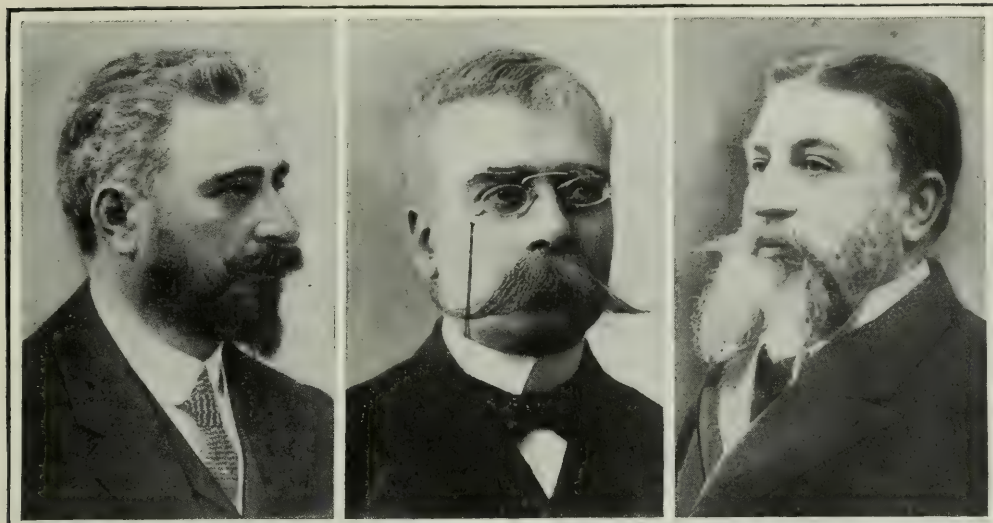
*Bulgaria's
Unholy
Plight*

It is a pathetic thing to see Bulgaria in league with her natural enemies, the Turks. There are many leading men in Bulgaria to-day who remember all the horrors of the Turkish massacres of Bulgarians in 1875, and who took part in the war of liberation. However tyrannical and overbearing Russia may have been at times since then, there is among the Bulgarian people a natural affection for the great Slav empire that rescued them almost forty years ago, as a result of which they have made marvelous progress as a nation. It is only three years ago that Bulgaria held the central place in the Balkan league that tried to drive the Turks out of Europe, and that would have succeeded but for the selfish and jealous interference of the great powers. A right adjustment at



Photograph by Paul Thompson

KING FERDINAND OF BULGARIA



Photographs by Bain

JOHN BRATIANO, PREMIER OF
RUMANIAALEXANDER ZAIMIS, PREMIER OF
GREECE

© American Press Association, New York

PREMIER RADOSLAVOFF OF BUL-
GARIA

THREE CONSPICUOUS BALKAN STATESMEN

that time would have saved Europe the present great convulsion. It is useless to moralize over these frightful calamities. Bulgaria is now at war,—with Turkey, Austria, and Germany as her allies. Against her are arrayed her historic friends, England and Russia, joined with France, Italy, and her unhappy neighbor, Serbia. Russia, on one hand, is doing her best to bully and drive Rumania into action against Bulgaria and Austria. England and France, on the other hand, are threatening and pressing Greece. The Serbians are making heroic resistance as the German invasion forces its way to the relief of Turkey. Bulgaria will fight in a spirit of despair, as having been forced into a false position and an unholy war.

*Allied
Cabinet
Crises*

The Balkan situation made a momentary crisis in French as well as in English government circles. The famous Foreign Minister, Delcassé, resigned, and the Prime Minister, Viviani, took upon his own shoulders the duties of the Foreign Office. Whether Delcassé had differed more with Viviani or with Sir Edward Grey was not revealed. But Viviani made his statement to the Chamber of Deputies, and received an almost unanimous vote of confidence. In England, the expected statement to Parliament did not find place because of the sudden illness and sequestration of Premier Asquith. After a week's stormy talk about a break-up of the

cabinet and an impossible appeal to the country, Sir Edward Carson resigned as Attorney-General; and England's splendid and patriotic coalition cabinet went on with its difficult but well-performed duties. In Russia, cabinet changes brought one of the leaders of the Conservative wing in the Duma into the executive group as Minister of the Interior. This is the first instance of a Russian cabinet member named from the Duma and continuing to hold his parliamentary seat. Real conditions in Russia, both military and political, are not readily ascertained by the outside world just now. It is reported that enormous quantities of munitions from Japan are constantly arriving at Moscow, and that the trans-Siberian road is taxed to the utmost with materials for Russia's armies. It is passing strange that Vladivostok and Archangel should have become Russian ports of first importance.

*Armenian
Horrors*

The sad plight of the Armenians is the most horrifying of the news of last month. Russia has not been able as yet to make the expected advance from her Transcaucasian province through the Turkish regions south of the Black Sea. The Armenians have been praying for Russian deliverance, while Turks and Kurds have been murdering Armenian men, and driving women and children to distant places in the desert where they must surely perish. It is Germany's responsibility.



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ENGLISH POLICEMEN DISPLAYING EXPLODED ZEPPELIN BOMBS
(These Zeppelin bombs are both explosive and incendiary)

*The Problem
of Protecting
the City*

The fogs and the dimming of the lights hide the city to some extent. London, like Paris and the German cities exposed to aerial attack, is, of course, darkened at night, and a system of signals has been arranged to warn the people of the approach of the enemy aircraft, so that they may seek the cellars for protection. In spite of the danger, however, the sight of a Zeppelin seems to attract the public like a pyrotechnical display. The Government has given assurance that the best minds of the navy are hard at

*Zeppelin
Attacks on
London*

Last month's Zeppelin attacks on London, occurring on October 13-14, were the most deadly that England has as yet sustained. As many as 55 persons were killed, and 114 injured. The total of casualties that have resulted from the score of aerial raids on England was thus brought to 169 killed and 388 wounded. Urgent demands were promptly made for reprisals in kind on Germany (which demands the government has steadily resisted), as well as for better protection from such attacks in the future. The problem of safeguarding the city from the enemy in the air has not been an easy one. It has taken experimentation to produce the right kind of anti-aircraft gun, and time to manufacture a sufficient quantity. A fleet of some 400 aeroplanes is maintained in and about London for the purpose of patrolling the air and attacking Zeppelins, but their task is exceedingly difficult. A half hour or more must elapse from the moment an enemy airship is sighted and the signal sent to the aero station before an aeroplane can start and climb up to the height of the Zeppelin. By that time the aerial destroyer has done its work and may be far off on the way home, for the entire attack in a single district, with the dropping of scores of bombs, may last scarcely more than a minute. The aeroplanes are also handicapped by the danger from the anti-aircraft guns, which keep up a constant fusillade from all over the city, and the blinding flashes from the numerous searchlights sweeping the sky for the Zeppelins.

work on the problem of London's protection from aerial attack, and both Mr. Balfour and Mr. Asquith have expressed the belief that future raids would be more effectively met. The appointment of Admiral Sir Percy Scott, with his high reputation as a gunnery expert, as director of the air defenses of London, has done much to increase this confidence. The aid of Mr. Lee De Forest, an American inventor, was also enlisted last month. It was believed that his latest device, the "Audion" incandescent globe, would, by amplifying the sound of the motors, help in detecting approaching Zeppelins.



Photograph by Paul Thompson.

MR. LEE DE FOREST
(The object in his hand is his "Audion" amplifier)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICAN DIPLOMATS IN CONFERENCE WITH SECRETARY LANSING AT THE BILTMORE HOTEL, NEW YORK CITY

(Left to right: Senor Don Ignacio Calderon, of Bolivia; Senor Don Carlos Maria de Pena, of Uruguay; Senor Don Joaquin Mendez, of Guatemala; E. C. Sweet, secretary of the conference; Senor Romulo S. Naon, of Argentina; Senor Da Gama, of Brazil; Secretary Lansing, and Senor Don Eduardo Suarez Mujica, of Chile)

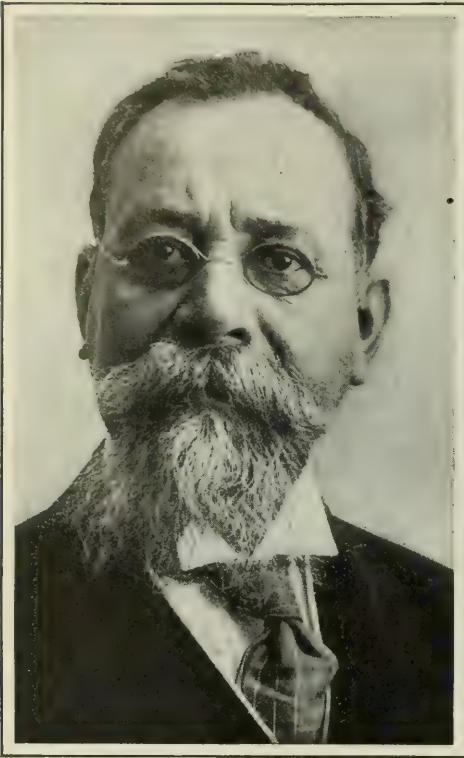
*A Government
in Mexico*

October 19, 1915, will take its place as one of the important dates in modern Mexican history. On that day nine of the leading governments of the Western Hemisphere, headed by the United States, joined in formal recognition of the *de facto* government of Mexico of which General Venustiano Carranza is the chief executive. Besides Brazil, Chile, Argentina, Bolivia, Uruguay and Guatemala, two other Latin-American powers, Colombia and Nicaragua, united in extending this recognition to the Carranza government. Official notifications were sent by the diplomatic representatives in Washington of these several countries to Señor Eliseo Arredondo, personal representative of Carranza, and Secretary Lansing's letter expressed an intention soon to designate an ambassador to Mexico. This outcome of the series of conferences of the Latin-American republics with our government was not unexpected. Indeed, it was virtually foreshadowed in recent developments, as we summarized them in these pages last month. The fact that the nine governments were united on this policy is significant in itself, and no one of the world powers in either hemisphere is likely to withhold recognition of the Carranza régime, now that the states

most concerned and best informed have announced their confidence in General Carranza's ability to create a stable Mexican government, or, at any rate, their belief that no other Mexican leader at the present time is so likely to succeed in setting up some semblance of legitimate rule where anarchy has reigned since the retirement of the elder Diaz. It is a moment for hope, if not for



UNCLE SAM (to Carranza): "Drive carefully, General."
From the *World* (New York)



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GEN. VENUSTIANO CARRANZA

(Executive head of the *de facto* government recognized by the Pan-American powers on October 19)

congratulation. The Washington administration has placed an embargo on the shipment of munitions of war from this country to Mexico, unless consigned to the recognized government. This action is likely to put a speedy end to effective insurrection.

In September of this year Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., made an extended visit to the mines of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, a property under his control, for the purpose of learning the working conditions with a view to their improvement. As an outcome of his observations in the mines and in the homes of the miners, Mr. Rockefeller submitted a plan for adjusting grievances and securing social and industrial betterment. This plan was accepted by the miners in a formal referendum vote, and nothing that has occurred in Colorado for a long time has offered so much in the way of specific remedy for the discontent that for years has kept the mining industry of the State in continual disturbance and has been a menace to the peace and welfare of the community.

The agreement signed last month by representatives of the miners and the operating company is to remain in force until January 1, 1918, and during that period the eight-hour day is to be maintained, together with the present wage-scale. But if wages should be raised in competitive fields a proportional increase would be made.

*Securing the
Rights of
Miners*

These rights of employees are definitely recognized in the Rockefeller plan: To hold meetings; to buy goods at other than "company" stores; to have a check-weighman at the scales; to belong to a union or to refrain from belonging, as the individual employee may desire. The demand for union recognition made by the miners at the beginning of the great strike two years ago is not conceded; but provision is made for district conference, in which the miners will be represented, for the settlement of disputes. There will also be standing joint committees on industrial coöperation and conciliation; on safety and accidents; on sanitation, health, and housing and on recreation and education. All in all, this points towards democracy in the mining industry of Colorado. Mr. Rockefeller has declared that stock-



Photo by American Press Ass'n., N. Y.

JUDGE ELISO ARREDONDO

(Carranza's Washington representative, who becomes Mexican Ambassador)

holders, directors, officers, and employees all have common interests, that none can be sacrificed to the others, and that when any one of these groups considers its selfish interest alone disaster will follow. Colorado was sadly in need of such a gospel as this.

Railroads in Receivership

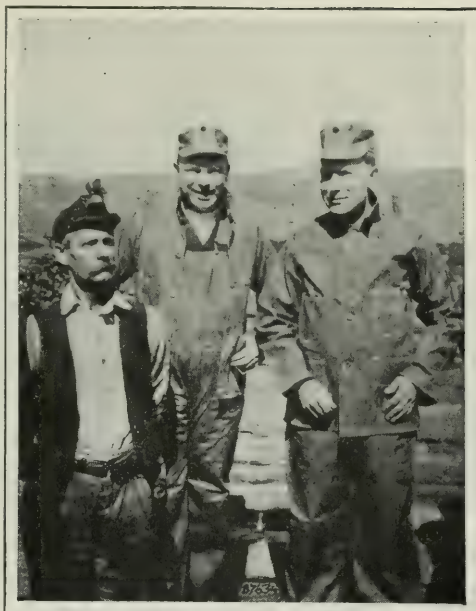
While industrial stocks, and especially those concerned with war orders, have been shooting up in price in a more spectacular way than has been seen before in this generation, railroad securities have lagged behind. Notable industrial stocks have increased 1500 per cent. in price this year, and the more fortunate railroad stocks 15 per cent. The fundamental reason for this contrast is, of course, that the prices of the products of the industrial companies can be and are increased in accordance with the laws of supply and demand, and with the higher costs of production. On the other hand, prices for the commodity,—transportation,—which the railroads have to sell, must remain the same unless the Interstate Commerce Commission sanctions an advance. It is true that at present one-sixth of the total mileage of railroads in the United States is in the hands of receivers. The recent addition of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas and the Missouri Pacific to the group of insolvent roads brings its mileage up to 40,721, and its total capitalization to \$2,271,503,489.

The Western Roads Will Try Again

There are nine systems of more than a thousand miles each now in the hands of the receivers, the list being headed by the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, with more than 8000 miles, and the Missouri Pacific and the St. Louis & San Francisco, with more than 7000 and 6000 miles, respectively. The forty-one Western roads which last July obtained a decision from the Interstate Commerce Commission, granting only a small percentage of certain rate increases asked for, have made formal petition for a rehearing of their case. It recites that the decision of last summer has not aided the carriers and that their current revenues are not sufficient to give a fair return on their investment. The petition particularly asks for increases in the rates on live-stock, packing-house products, meats, hides, fertilizer, cotton goods, and such commodities.

Some Railroads Doing Better

Certain railroads are showing better operating results than last year, chiefly those hauling soft coal and others directly affected by the new



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR., DONS MINERS' UNIFORM AND CHATS WITH HIS MEN AT TRINIDAD MINES

feverish activity in the steel and iron business or other trades stimulated by the European war orders. It was quite necessary that such an improvement should be shown if there were not to be further disastrous additions to the receivership list. The New Haven road is showing a marked recovery from its recent low-water mark in earnings; the New York Central is doing markedly better than last year; the very well-managed Southern Railroad shows signs of recovering from the severe blow to its earnings caused by the misfortunes of the cotton planters. Coal roads, like the Norfolk & Western and Chesapeake & Ohio, are making unusual records of gross earnings. As a whole, however, the railroad industry is far from being out of the woods, and its troubles are a very real drag on the return of the company to general prosperity. Not the least difficulty to be faced by the roads in the immediate future is the high cost of capital, caused by the great demand of war times. The carriers must borrow money in great quantities for the extension of their lines and improvement of their service if they are to keep up with the country's growth. This borrowing at current rates for capital will cost them from 10 to 25 per cent. more than the cost twenty years ago, which is a very formidable factor when the price of the commodity they produce cannot be increased.



THE FRENCH-ENGLISH BILLION-DOLLAR LOAN IN AMERICA

RICH UNCLE SAM: "Here, youngster, take this and skip along."
 [For a discussion of the Anglo-French loan and its success in the United States, see the comments by our financial editor, on pages 638-9 of this number of the REVIEW]
 From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

*The Harvest
Exceeding
Its Promise*

The October report from the Government on the harvests of 1915 show, that they have finally exceeded even the favorable promise of earlier months. For the first time the United States has grown a wheat crop exceeding a billion bushels; and it is also true that no other country has ever produced so much wheat in one season. The corn yield promises to be over three billion bushels, the largest in history, while preliminary estimates indicate record harvests of oats, barley, rye, sweet potatoes, rice, tobacco, and hay. Not only is the wheat crop the largest in quantity; at prices prevailing in October the farm value of this one 1915 crop is more than \$910,000,000,—considerably more than any previous season's valuation. The Canadian crop, also, far exceeds that of any former year.

*A New Steel
Combination*

One of the many stirring consequences of the sudden revival of activity in the iron and steel business, begun, as it was, largely by the stimulation of European war orders,—is the forming of a new combination of steel-makers. The Midvale Steel & Ordnance Company does not, to be sure, measure up in gigantic proportions to the United States

Steel Corporation, its total authorized capital being \$100,000,000. Its nucleus was the Midvale Steel Company, a well-established concern engaged largely in the manufacture of armor plate and heavy ordnance. The corporation owning the new combination took over the Midvale Company for \$22,000,000, paid \$20,000,000 more for the Remington Arms Company, and \$18,500,000 for the Worth Brothers Company and the Coatesville Rolling Mill Company. The operating head of the new "trust" is William E. Corey, a former president of the United States Steel Corporation, and one of the vice-presidents is Alva C. Dinkey, also taken from the greater company. The new combination is said to have an option on 300,000,000 tons of iron ore in Cuba. The promoters of the Midvale concern answer suggestions of possible Government interference with statements that its capitalization represents actual cash and cost values, and that there will be only one class of stock, no debts and no promotion awards, the organizers receiving their profits from the privilege of subscription at par. They also point out that the units combined have not been competitors, as they turn out different classes of finished products.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From September 21 to October 19, 1915)

The Last Part of September

September 21.—The British budget is introduced by Chancellor of the Exchequer McKenna, calling for expenditures five times the amount of revenue; the Chancellor proposes to increase the income tax and postal rates and the taxes on sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, patent medicines, and automobiles.

September 22.—French aviators bombard the royal palace and railway station at Stuttgart, the capital of Wurttemberg, more than 100 miles beyond the German frontier.

September 23.—Acting upon the advice of Premier Venizelos, King Constantine orders a general mobilization of the Greek army, "as a measure of elementary prudence in view of the mobilization of Bulgaria."

In the *Frye* case, the State Department at Washington makes public a note from the German Government; in future German warships will not destroy American vessels carrying conditional contraband, but the right is reserved to destroy those carrying absolute contraband.

September 24.—The German Finance Minister, Dr. Helfferich, announces that subscriptions for the third war loan amount to \$3,000,000,000; the total of the three loans is \$6,250,000,000.

The German general offensive against Russia meets with reverses at several points, particularly at Lutsk, which is recaptured by the Russians.

September 25.—After several days of heavy bombardment of the German lines, an important offensive movement is undertaken by the French in the Champagne district (between Rheims and Verdun), and by the British and French in the Artois district (between Ypres and Arras).

September 26.—British and French official reports indicate that their assaults carried twenty miles of German trenches, in some places to a depth of nearly three miles.

September 27.—The Austro-German forces under General von Linsingen recover and compel the Russians to retreat from Lutsk.

September 28.—Formal announcement is made at New York of the terms of the American loan to Great Britain and France, arranged by a commission of British and French financial authorities after conferences with American bankers; a bond issue of \$500,000,000 is to be floated, drawing 5 per cent. interest and issued to the syndicate at 96; the money is to remain in the United States, and to be used only in payment for commodities.

The British Minister of Foreign Affairs, Sir Edward Grey, informs the House of Commons that Great Britain and her allies will support with their full power those Balkan states which may be attacked by Bulgaria.

The Italian battleship *Benedetto Brin* is blown to pieces by an internal explosion while at anchor in Brindisi Harbor; Rear-Admiral de Cervin and more than 300 of the crew are killed.

September 29.—A French official report enumerates the results of the four days' assaults of the Anglo-French forces, maintaining that the Germans suffered losses amounting to the effective strength of 120,000 men; 23,000 men and 120 cannon were captured.

The First Week of October

October 1.—Persistent rumors at Washington are to the effect that more than fifty German submarines have been destroyed or captured since Germany began its submarine warfare against merchant shipping.

It is announced at London that during the month of September thirty-six British merchant ships were destroyed by German warships or mines, with a loss of seventy-two lives.

The German War Office declares that 95,464 Russian prisoners were taken by German troops during September, besides 37 cannon and 298 machine guns.

Statistics published at Washington indicate that 41.7 per cent. of the male members of German trades unions have enlisted in the war.

October 2.—Reports from the Russian zone indicate that the German offensive has slackened all along the line and that the Russian resistance has stiffened; the front extends in a straight line from Dvinsk to the Rumanian frontier.

October 3.—Russia demands that Bulgaria "break with the enemies of the Slav cause" and at once expel German and Austrian officers alleged to have joined the Bulgarian army.

A committee of distinguished Americans makes public a report of its investigation into charges of Turkish atrocities in Armenia, based upon information of "unquestioned veracity, integrity, and authority"; it finds that "crimes now being perpetrated upon the Armenian people surpass in their horror and cruelty anything that history has recorded during the past thousand years."

October 4.—It is learned that British and French troops have been landed in Greece (neutral), at Salonica, to help Serbia resist the threatened Austro-German drive through Serbia to the relief of Turkey.

German and Russian official reports show that the Russian armies have assumed the offensive in many sections.

October 5.—The German Government, desirous of reaching an agreement with the United States on the *Arabic* incident, disavows the act of the submarine commander who sank the ship in the belief that it intended to ram his own vessel; orders issued to German submarine commanders "have been made so stringent that the recurrence of a similar incident is out of the question."

King Constantine, of Greece, informs Premier Venizelos that he cannot support his pro-Allies policy, and the Premier resigns; previously the Chamber of Deputies had passed a vote of confidence in the Venizelos ministry, 142 to 102.



WHAT A TORPEDO DOES TO A SHIP

(The cargo has been adjusted so that the vessel's bow is almost out of the water; but when made by the torpedo the hole was entirely under water. Measured by the scale marked on the bow, the hole is more than twenty-two feet square. The *Gulfight* was torpedoed on May 1, but the photograph has only recently become available)

Subscriptions to the Anglo-French loan floated in the United States are closed, and it is announced that the \$500,000,000 is over-subscribed; six applications alone take one-fifth of the loan.

October 6.—The Russian, French, British, Italian, and Serbian ministers to Bulgaria ask for their passports, the Bulgarian Government's reply to the Russian ultimatum being unsatisfactory.

The French offensive in the Champagne region carries an important German position at Tahure, within two miles of the railway serving German trenches between Rheims and the Argonne.

October 7.—Austro-German armies begin an invasion of Serbia, in an attempt to open a route to Constantinople to aid the Turks; Field-Marshal von Mackensen is in command, and his forces are reported to number 300,000.

A Greek cabinet is formed with Alexander Zaimis as Premier; five of the members are former Premiers.

Lord Bryce declares in the House of Lords that since May 800,000 Armenian men, women, and children have been slain by Turks in Asia Minor.

The Second Week of October

October 9.—Belgrade, the Serbian capital, is occupied by the Austro-German invading armies.

October 10.—The Serbian War Office declares that the right wing of the invading Austro-German armies, attempting to cross the lower Drina, southwest of Belgrade, has been thrown back with enormous losses.

The Russian cabinet is reorganized to admit two new members, one of whom (Alexei Khvos-

tov, Minister of the Interior), for the first time, comes from the Duma.

October 11.—Bulgarian armies cross the border into Serbia at several points east of Nish,—and Bulgaria enters the war as an ally of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey.

October 12.—It is reported from Sweden and Denmark that six German steamships have been sunk within twenty-four hours by British submarines operating in the Baltic Sea.

Austro-German armies capture the Serbian city and fortress of Semendria, opening the route to Nish and Constantinople.

The Russian War Office reports that the Austro-Germans in Galicia have been forced back across the Stripa River, southwest of Tarnopol.

October 13.—A night raid of Zeppelin airships over London and the eastern counties results in the killing of 41 civilians and 14 persons connected with the military; 114 others are injured.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs in the French cabinet, Théophile Delcassé, resigns; Premier Viviani assumes the portfolio, and receives a vote of confidence in the Chamber of Deputies, 372 to 9.

The Third Week of October

October 15.—Great Britain informs the Bulgarian Government that a state of war exists, because of attacks made by Bulgaria on Britain's ally, Serbia.

Premier Zaimis informs Great Britain that the Greek Government does not consider that its treaty with Serbia (a defensive alliance) calls for intervention by Greece in the present circumstances.

Official figures of British casualties at the Dardanelles show a total of 96,899, of whom 18,957 were killed.

October 17.—The French and British troops landed on Greek soil are reported to have entered Bulgarian territory and attacked the fortified town of Strumnitza.

October 18.—Sir Edward Carson resigns his post as Attorney General in the British cabinet, disagreeing with the prevailing views of his colleagues regarding affairs in the near East.

Major-Gen. Sir Charles C. Monro is appointed to command the British forces at the Dardanelles, succeeding Gen. Sir Ian Hamilton.

October 19.—A Russian imperial manifesto proclaims "the treason of Bulgaria to the Slav cause," the proclamation being virtually a formal declaration of war.

Italy declares war upon Bulgaria.

The capital of Serbia is transferred from Nish to Prisrend, in the west.

A Bulgarian invading army reaches Vrania, Serbia, in an attempt to cut the railway connecting the Serbian army and the Anglo-French forces; but they are thrown back.

A French official report declares that a carefully prepared German attack with strong forces, east of Rheims, has been completely checked.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE ARROWROCK IRRIGATION DAM, ACROSS THE BOISE RIVER, IDAHO

(The dam is the highest in the world, being 261 feet from the roadway at the top to the river bed, with an additional 90 feet of anchorage extending down to solid rock. At the top it is only 16 feet wide, but at the base the concrete wall is 240 feet thick. The dam creates an artificial mountain lake eighteen miles long, impounding water during the rainy season and storing it for use during dry periods. It is said that more than two hundred thousand acres of agricultural lands will be watered and made productive by this irrigation project. It was formally opened last month, after four years of construction work by the United States Reclamation Service)

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From September 21 to October 19, 1915)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

September 21.—In the Massachusetts primaries Governor David I. Walsh (Dem.) is renominated, and Samuel W. McCall (Rep.), Nelson B. Clark (Prog.), and William Shaw (Proh.) are nominated.

September 28.—Mayor Rolph (Rep.) of San Francisco is reelected, receiving a majority vote in the primaries.

October 6.—Addressing the Naval Consulting Board at its first meeting, President Wilson declares that the nation is convinced that it ought to be adequately prepared for defense. . . . President Wilson announces that he will vote for woman suffrage at the special election in New Jersey,—not as the leader of his party in the nation, but upon his private convictions as a citizen of the State.

October 10.—President Wilson addresses the Daughters of the American Revolution at their twenty-fifth anniversary celebration in Washington; he pleads for pure patriotism in politics, and the undivided allegiance of foreign-born citizens.

October 13.—Mayor Bell, of Indianapolis, is acquitted by a jury of the charge of conspiracy in connection with the 1914 primary and elec-

tion. . . . The so-called "cotton futures" act is declared unconstitutional in the United States District Court at New York, because, although a revenue measure, it originated in the Senate.

October 19.—A constitutional amendment extending the suffrage to women is rejected by the voters of New Jersey, by a majority of 50,000. . . . Secretary Daniels announces the details of the national defense program for the navy; a five-year building scheme is proposed, during which time there shall be authorized 16 new battleships and battle cruisers, 10 scout cruisers, 100 submarines, and 50 destroyers.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

September 24.—A United States cavalryman is killed in an engagement with Mexican soldiers near Progreso, Texas.

September 26.—Fighting between United States marines and Haitian guerrillas, near Cape Haitien, results in the killing of an American sergeant and fifty Haitians.

September 27.—A second sergeant of United States marines is killed from ambush by Haitian outlaws.

September 29.—Haitian Cacos, or guerrillas, agree to surrender their arms in exchange for amnesty.



JOSEPH E. WING

(Of all the writers in the great and growing field of agricultural literature, none was better known or more widely read than "Joe" Wing. He was for many years traveling correspondent of the *Breeder's Gazette*, of Chicago, and was author of several books. He wrote and lectured with charming style. During recent years he became the leading advocate of alfalfa-planting. His death occurred on September 10)

October 5.—It is announced at Lima that Pope Benedict has been designated as arbitrator of the question of delimiting the frontiers of Peru and Bolivia.

October 9.—The Carranza party in Mexico is declared to be the only one possessing the essentials for recognition as the *de facto* government, at a fourth conference of the American Secretary of State and the diplomatic representatives at Washington of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala.

October 19.—The United States extends formal recognition to General Carranza as leader of the dominant faction in Mexico; similar action is taken by eight of the republics of Central and South America.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

September 20.—The Panama Canal is closed indefinitely, because of slides in the Gaillard (Culebra) Cut.

September 22.—The collapse of a street for more than a block in New York City, when undermined for subway construction, causes the death of seven persons and serious injury to scores.

September 25.—A section of Broadway, New York City, under which a subway is being constructed, collapses and causes the death of one person and injuries to three others.

September 26.—The explosion of a gasoline tank car and fires resulting therefrom destroy

many buildings in Ardmore, Okla., and kill more than thirty persons.

September 27.—The Missouri, Kansas & Texas Railway, with 3800 miles of track, is placed in the hands of a receiver.

September 29.—Wireless telephone conversations are carried on by officials of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company (using naval wireless-telegraph power stations), between Arlington, Va., and Honolulu, 4900 miles apart. . . . A tropical hurricane sweeps over the lower Mississippi valley and the Gulf coast, causing much destruction of property and the loss of 300 lives; the city of New Orleans suffers most severely. . . . Twenty thousand members of the Grand Army of the Republic march through Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, and are reviewed by the President at the White House; the parade commemorates the Grand Review, held in May fifty years earlier, at the close of the Civil War.

October 1.—Capt. Elias R. Montfort, of Cincinnati, is elected Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.

October 4.—The Department of Agriculture estimates that the cotton crop will be 10,950,000 bales (of 500 pounds each), the smallest crop since 1909.

October 6.—The engagement of President Woodrow Wilson and Mrs. Norman Galt, of Washington, is announced at the White House.

October 7.—The Government's crop reports indicate record harvests of wheat and oats and the second largest corn crop; the wheat yield will for the first time reach the billion-bushel mark.

October 9.—A new automobile racing record is made in the first contest for the Astor Cup, held in New York City; Gil Anderson drives a Stutz car 350 miles at the rate of 102.6 miles an hour.

October 11.—A United States Army aviator, Lieut. Walter D. Taliaferro, is killed during a flight over San Diego Bay.

October 13.—The Boston American League baseball team (the "Red Sox") wins the championship series, four games to one, played with the Philadelphia National League team.

OBITUARY

September 21.—Anthony Comstock, the noted vice crusader, 71. . . . Rev. David S. Phelan, for more than fifty years editor of the *Western Watchman*, 74. . . . James W. Alexander, former president of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, 76.

September 22.—Dr. Austin Flint, of New York, a distinguished physiologist and alienist, 79. . . . Rudolph Ellis, a prominent Philadelphia financier, 78.

September 26.—James Keir Hardie, the noted British labor leader, 59.

September 27.—Rev. Dr. David Parker Morgan, formerly a prominent New York clergyman and social worker, 73. . . . John W. Bookwalter, at one time prominent in Ohio manufacturing and political circles, 76. . . . Alonzo Rothschild, author of a widely read Lincoln biography, 53.

September 30.—William Watson, secretary of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 81. . . . Richard R. Williams, for thirty years editor of the *Iron Age*, 72.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

AN UNFORTUNATE INCIDENT IN A GREAT ENGINEERING TASK

(The scene is Seventh Avenue, New York City, at Twenty-fourth Street, just after an explosion has caused the street to collapse for an entire block. It is particularly interesting as showing graphically how the metropolis is being honeycombed for its underground transportation system. In order not to interfere with the ordinary use of the streets during the three years necessary to complete the work, the tunneling method is used rather than open excavation work. For a long period, after the earth has been dug out and before the steel and concrete work is completed, the surface of the street is merely boards propped up by wooden beams. An extra-heavy blast, with perhaps other contributing factors, caused the supports to collapse, and the whole street—with its occupants, including a crowded street car—dropped to the bottom. Seven persons were killed and scores seriously injured. There are forty-five miles of subway under construction in New York, one line being under the most important and congested thoroughfare, Broadway. Three days after the accident shown in this illustration, a second one—somewhat less serious—occurred on Broadway)

October 3.—John Pratt Elkin, Justice of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, 55. . . . Reynold Kohlhaas, of Paterson, N. J., noted for his improvements in silk-weaving, 62.

October 4.—George Edwardes, the famous English producer of musical-comedies, 63. . . . Karl Albert Staaff, former Premier of Sweden.

October 6.—Mrs. May Arkwright Hutton, pioneer leader of the suffrage movement in Washington State.

October 7.—Bishop Robert Codman, of the Episcopal diocese of Maine, 55. . . . John Bishop Putnam, the book publisher, 67. . . . Rev. John A. Conway, S. J., former president of the Catholic Educational Association, 62.

October 10.—Charles Frederick Holder, the scientist and writer on natural history, 66.

October 11.—Jean Henri Fabre, the distinguished French authority on insect life, 92. . . . Alfred Mezieres, dean of the French Academy and author of works on literature, 89. . . . Premier Eyschen of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg.

October 12.—Thomas P. Fowler, former president of the New York, Ontario & Western Railroad, 64. . . . Arthur Pillsbury Dodge, well known in New England and New York as lawyer and magazine publisher, 65.

October 14.—Dr. Thomas Hunter, for more than half a century teacher and principal in New York City grammar and normal schools, 83.

October 16.—Brig.-Gen. Henry Blanchard Freeman, U. S. A., a veteran of Indian, Civil, and Spanish wars, 79. . . . Sir Lionel Carden, recently British Minister to Mexico, 64. . . . Prof. Theodor Boveri, the German biologist, 53. . . . Henry Mann, a well-known New York newspaper man and author, 67.

October 18.—Roderick Dhu Sutherland, former Representative in Congress from Nebraska, 63. . . . Arthur Greaves, city editor of the New York Times, 47. . . . Robert Boyd Ward, head of a widely known baking company, 63.

October 19.—Augustus Jay DuBois, professor of civil engineering in the Sheffield Scientific School, 66. . . . Joseph G. McCoy, pioneer cattle drover of the Southwest, 77.



© Patriot Publishing Company. From "The Photographic History of the Civil War."

THE GRAND REVIEW OF UNION TROOPS ON PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE, WASHINGTON, IN MAY, 1865

TWO HISTORIC PARADES

FIFTY years ago last May, bronzed and scarred soldiers of the North tramped along Pennsylvania Avenue, from the Capitol to the White House, for two full days. Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattox, on April 9, had been followed in quick succession by the capitulation of all the armies of the South; and the four years' struggle had come to an end. The Confederate soldiers had been paroled, and had already returned to their homes. The Union troops,—or, rather, 200,000 of them,—before being mustered out of service, were brought to Washington to be reviewed by the President and to receive the homage of the nation, as a fitting celebration of the end of war and the beginning of peace.

The fates had decreed that Lincoln was not to enjoy such an occasion, to which he

had looked forward for so long. The flags of the capital were still at half-mast, the buildings still draped in mourning for him. The reviewing stand was occupied by President Johnson and by Generals Grant, Sherman, and Meade. The blue line marched past for two days,—the Army of the Potomac on May 23, and the Armies of Tennessee and Georgia on the 24th. There was a cheerful spirit in the ranks,—for the long and trying conflict was over, and the men were returning to their homes and their peaceful occupations. It was truly an inspiring occasion.

That was half a century ago; and this year's meeting of the veterans' organization, the Grand Army of the Republic, was held in Washington to commemorate the event.



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GRAND ARMY VETERANS ON PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE, WASHINGTON, ON SEPTEMBER 29, 1915,
COMMEMORATING FIFTY YEARS OF PEACE

The intervening years have wrought radical changes in their ranks. The bearded youths of '65 have become aged men. Many of them have attended their last muster and answered their last roll-call. Few of those who survive are under seventy; some are over ninety. Twenty thousand of the veterans were able to make the journey to Washington, coming from all parts of the country, and on the 29th of September they marched along Pennsylvania Avenue exactly as had been done fifty years before. The President who reviewed them was a Democrat, and in a prominent place of honor was the Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court,—a soldier of the Confederacy.

There never was a feeling of hatred between the men who wore the Union Blue and

those in the Confederate Gray; and there are ever-increasing signs of comradeship between the former rivals. The spirit which made possible the reunion at Gettysburg 'in 1913, and its further development there, has become so general throughout the veterans' organizations that we may soon see their annual gatherings held in common.

Our illustrations show both the grand review of fifty years ago (from a rare Brady photograph, in the collection owned by the Review of Reviews Company), and its repetition of last September,—the cameras having been placed in almost exactly the same spot. The view is up Pennsylvania Avenue, with the Capitol in the distance. A striking feature of the two scenes, when contrasted, is the thinned ranks of the veterans.

WAR AND MOBILIZATION IN THE BALKANS



© International News Service, New York

UNLOADING A BRITISH NAVAL GUN IN SERBIA

(British marines and Serbian artillerymen unloading a big naval gun sent to Serbia by the English)



© American Press Association, New York

**SALONICA, THE GRECIAN PORT WHERE THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH LANDED TO HELP THEIR LITTLE
ALLY, SERBIA**



© International News Service, New York

MEETING THE TEUTON INVADERS

(A Serbian trench on the ledge of a hill overlooking the Danube)



© International News Service, New York

EXCAVATIONS AND BARBED WIRE FENCES IN SERBIA

(Some of the obstacles the Germans and Austrians have to overcome in advancing through Serbia)

Nov.—3



© American Press Association, New York

BULGARIAN INFANTRY IN THE MOUNTAINS



Photograph by Paul Thompson

A BATTERY OF BULGARIAN ARTILLERY



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

A SECTION OF THE GREEK ARMY IN THEIR PICTURESQUE GARB



© American Press Association, New York

RUMANIAN CAVALRY WITH MAXIM GUNS

THE ALLIES' CARTOONISTS

LAST month we presented in this department a large number of current cartoons on the war from German and Austrian sources. In this issue we have gathered together some specimens of the work of the cartoonists of the Allied nations. To *Punch*, of London, as the "dean" of the Allies' cartoon periodicals, must, of course, be given first place in such a collection, and in point of service in many previous wars it is the foremost veteran of them all. The Zeppelin and submarine questions are naturally nearer to Britain's Isle than some other phases of the war, and many cartoons have appeared in England on these two topics.



THE ACHIEVEMENT

COUNT ZEPPELIN: "Stands London where it did, my child?"

THE CHILD: "Yes, father; missed it again."

COUNT ZEPPELIN: "Then you had no success?"

THE CHILD: "Oh, yes, father; I've got home again."

From *Punch* (London)

The cartoonists of the Allies, it must be admitted, do not display as much of primitive fierceness as their Teutonic brothers. There is in their work more of humor than of mere savagery. In some of the smaller of the Allies' countries the war has, of course, interfered not only with the publishing of periodicals and the work of the cartoonists, but also with the regular mail service to this country, so that it has not been possible to give examples from every nation actually at war. A representative collection of caricatures may, however, be found in these pages.



THE DACHSHUND (GERMANY) PAUSES BEFORE DECIDING TO CROSS THE PATH OF THE BRISTLING PORCUPINE (MOBILIZED RUMANIA)

From the *Dispatch* (Manchester)



CONSOLATION

TIRPITZ: "Boo-oh! They won't let me be as frightful as I want to be!"

KAISER: "Don't cry, Tirpy! You can make an occasional mistake, you know, and Bernstorff can always apologize." From the *Westminster Gazette*



PLUCKING THE GERMANIC EAGLES

THE BERSAGLIERE: "Here's where I get new feathers for my hat."

From *Pasquino* (Turin)



BULL'S RUN

The Italians scored against the Austrians by liberating and stampeding bulls upon them.

From *Punch* (Melbourne)

Colonial Britain is as sturdy in the cartoon arena as on the field of battle. Some of the best work is Canadian, notably by Racey, of the *Montreal Star*. From the Dominion to India is a long way, but men-

tion must certainly be made of the cartoons published in *Hindi Punch*, of Bom-



THE KAISER'S HEROISM

THE GERMAN EMPEROR (to his allies): "We shall go on fighting heroically as long as you have a single soldier left."

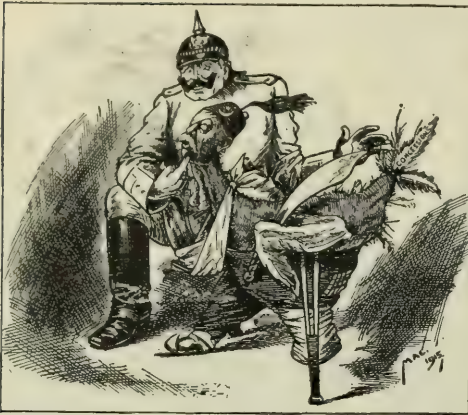
From *Pasquino* (Turin)



THE IMPS OF WAR

KAISER: "After all the trouble I've taken with you I must say that, as little terrors, you disappoint me."

From *Punch* (London)



ROBBING PETER TO PACIFY PAUL

THE KAISER (about to pluck feathers): "You must learn to renounce, dear Bird."

THE TURKEY: "I've done nothing else!"

(Referring to the report that Germany induced Turkey to make territorial concessions to Bulgaria for the purpose of securing her assistance)

From the *Cape Times* (Cape Town, Africa)

bay. These cartoons are quaint in execution, but well conceived. The cartoonists of Australia, also, and South Africa, are giving the Empire and the Allies loyal support.

The "salient" where the attack occasionally develops intensity is the so-called barbarity of the German methods of warfare,



GANYMEDE AND THE GERMAN EAGLE

SULTAN: "Of course I know it's a great honor being 'taken up' like this; still, I'm beginning almost to wish the bird had left me alone."

From *Punch* (London)



TURKEY'S FALL

THE SCHOOLMASTER: "Take a good look at Turkey now—because when we re-open school she will have ceased to exist!"

From *Pasquino* (Turin)



GERMAN KULTUR WINS BULGARIA

TURKEY: "My protector and benefactor, relying on your promises, I have taken in good part all the hammering I have had from the Allies. Now will you advise me how to face our new enemy, that burglar Bulgarian?"

GERMANY: "Nothing easier; we shall make a friend of him by just giving him your railway."

From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay)



WALRUS TEARS

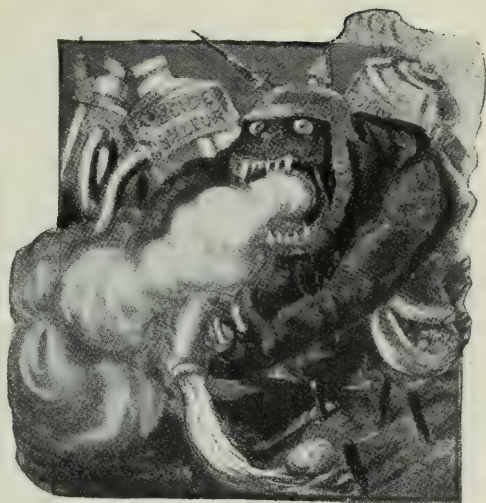
"I weep for you," the walrus said;
 "I deeply sympathise."
 With sobs and tears, he sorted out
 Those of the largest size,
 Holding his pocket-handkerchief
 Before his streaming eyes.
 ("Through the Looking Glass")

From the *Cape Times* (Cape Town, Africa)

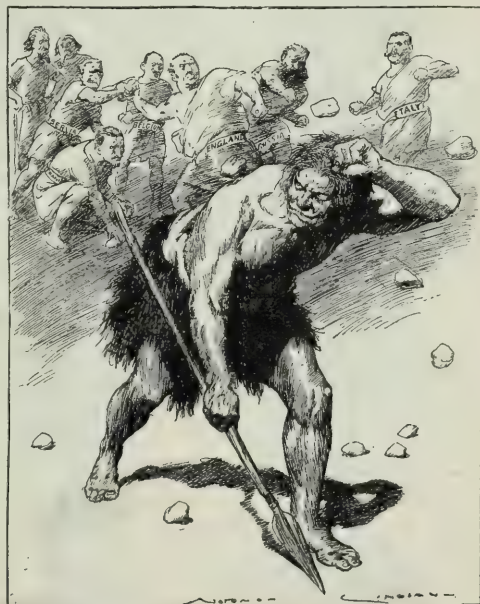
(A Copenhagen telegram says it is stated in the German papers that the Kaiser, during his visit to the battlefield on the western front, knelt before a large group of dead German soldiers and wept, exclaiming, "I have not willed this.")

and for this the Kaiser, as the head of the Teutonic forces, is made personally responsible in the cartoons on this subject.

The report that on more than one occasion the Kaiser wept when surveying the dreadful casualties of the battlefield, is seized upon by

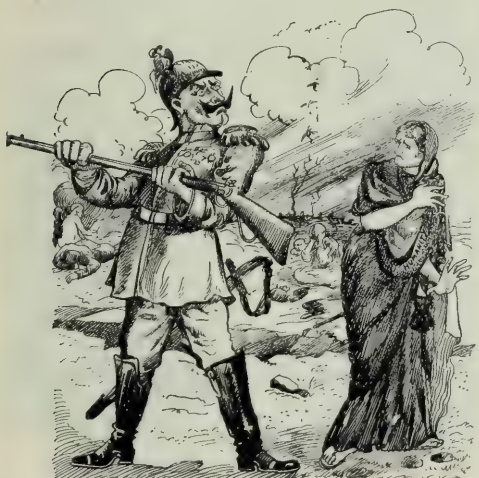
THE LAST WEAPONS OF KULTUR
From *Le Rire* (Paris)

the cartoonists for some striking satirical work (as witness the "Walrus Tears" cartoon from the *Cape Times*). The "poison gas" methods of fighting, and the slaying of non-combatants by submarines, have also come in for attention, until the Kaiser is pictured as denying all knowledge of the principles of humanity, and his country branded as an Ishmael among nations.



THE ISHMAEL OF THE NATIONS

"And he will be a wild man; his hand will be against every man and every man's hand against him."
 From the *Bulletin* (Sydney, Australia)



"NO GREATER SHAME TO MAN THAN INHUMANITIE"
 GERM-HUN KAISER (TO "HUMANITY"): "Woman, depart! I know thee not."
 From the *Hindi Punch* (Bombay)



THE LABORS OF SISYPHUS

(An Italian view of the utter futility of Teutonic expeditions into Russia)

From *Il Fischietto* (Turin)

Turkey comes in for considerable attention. The "Sick Man of Europe" is now usually represented as a much battered bird, receiving severe punishment as a result



THREE CHEERS FOR THE "LLOYD GEORGE" SHELL!

(The Minister of Munitions is doing good work)

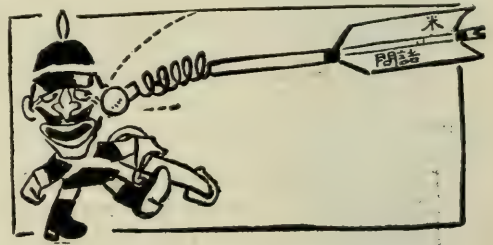
From *Hindi Funch* (Bombay)



AN IMPOSSIBLE TASK

RUSSIA (TO GERMANY): "Well, well; you may try, but at this rate you won't even reach around my waist."

From *Mucha* (Warsaw)



A FEEBLE ARROW

(The arrow is labelled "American Protest.")

From *Mancho* (Tokyo)



A RUSSIAN VIEW OF THE NEGOTIATIONS FOR A SEPARATE PEACE

THE KAISER: "Can't you hear me at the telephone?"
THE RUSSIAN (remembering the poison gas): "That's why I keep away. It is not sterilized at this end."

From *Novoe Satirikon* (Petrograd)



"TEN LITTLE NIGGERS WERE SITTING ON A FENCE"
 "—and then there was one." And he won't last long. (Referring to Germany's lost colonies)
 From the *Daily Star* (Montreal)



APROPOS OF THE FRENCH DRIVE

THE CROWN PRINCE: "You were complaining the other day, Father, that your generals on the west front were stuck fast. Well, we're on the move now."

From *Punch* (London)

of allying himself with the Germans. Evidence of regret over a bad bargain, and a rueful spirit, are shown by the Turk in these cartoons.

Russia, naturally, occupies a prominent place in the work of the cartoonists; and

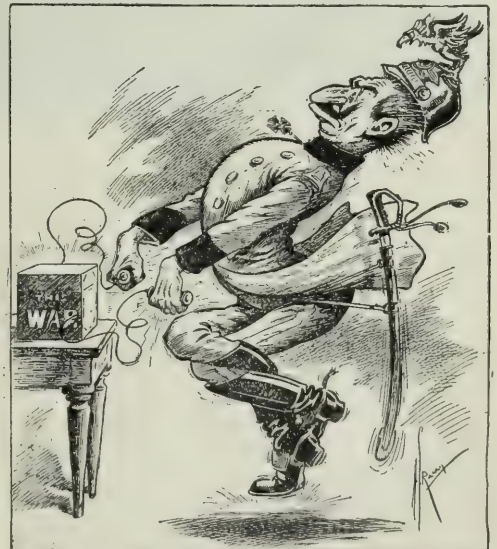
whether the "Bear" happens to be advancing or retreating, the main point usually emphasized is the ultimate hopelessness of the attempt to conquer the immense forces at the disposal of the Czar.



THE ASTONISHED HUNS

"We have captured Warsaw, but the town is empty!"
 "What a barbarous people! What a way to make war!"

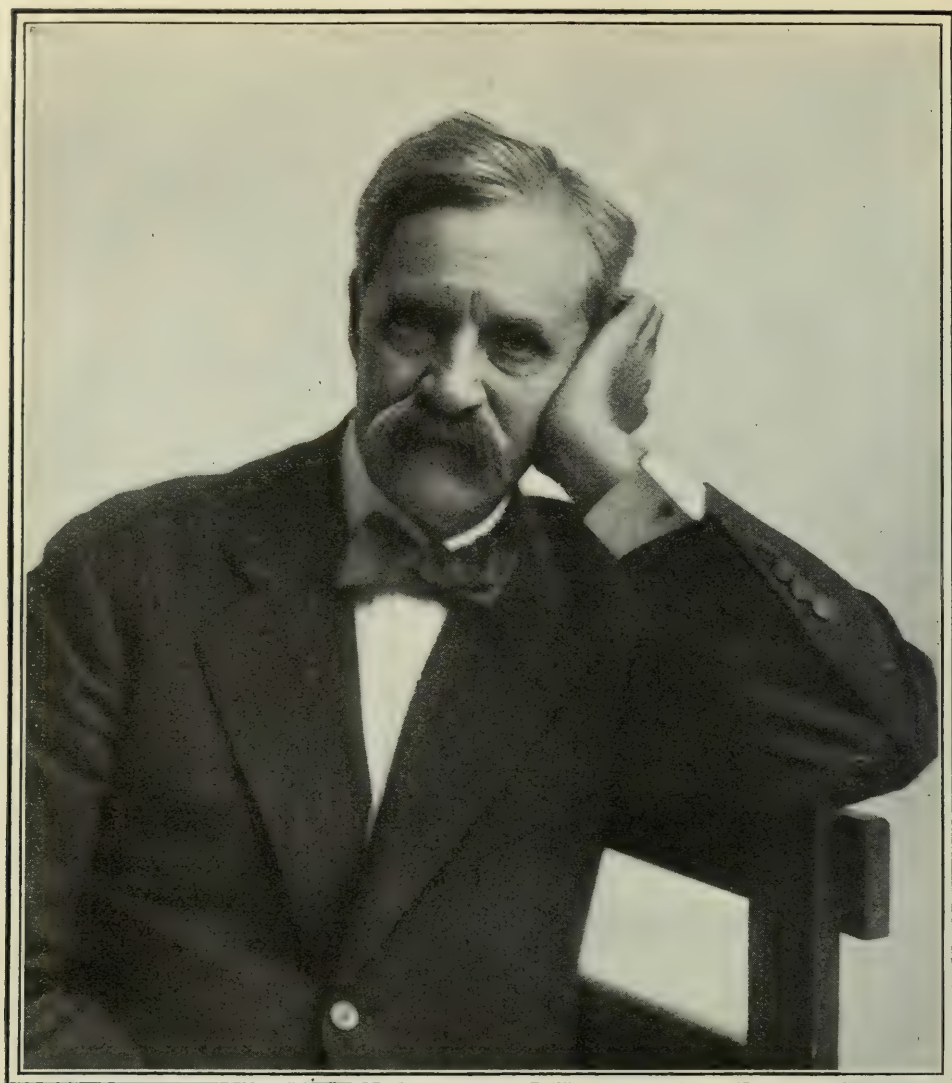
From *Pasquino* (Turin)



"ow—w—w—w!"

The Kaiser started the electric battery and now he can't let go.

From the *Star* (Montreal)



SENATOR CUMMINS, OF IOWA

ALBERT BAIRD CUMMINS had made him one of the foremost men in the Senate from the very beginning of his service in that body, to which he has been twice reelected. He opposed the Payne-Aldrich tariff, and voted against it. His position in that debate led to the initiation of the income-tax amendment to the Constitution. He was unable to accept the work of the Republican convention of 1912 as valid, and refused to support Taft, voting for Roosevelt. But he maintained his place in the Republican party, is its acknowledged leader in his own State, and is perhaps its foremost figure in the United States Senate.

DEFENSE AND REVENUE IN THE NEXT CONGRESS

BY ALBERT B. CUMMINS

(United States Senator from Iowa)

WHATEVER else the approaching Congress may do there can be no doubt that it will give its first attention to the two subjects which are uppermost in the minds of the people,—*preparedness* and *revenue*. We must determine, and at once, whether we should initiate a system that will lead to an adequate national defense; and we must decide immediately whether we should continue a fiscal policy that will shortly end in a bankrupt treasury.

I venture to make some suggestions touching these important and imminent questions. Notwithstanding the noise and turmoil of what appears to be the fiercest and wildest controversy of recent years, there is, in truth, but little difference of opinion with respect to preparedness among the great body of the silent, steady masses. It may seem that we are in the midst of a storm of disagreement so furious that we are in danger of shipwreck; but it will pass away without even leaving an issue behind it.

Just now there are some passionate and insanely fearful apostles of preparedness who apparently demand that we shall tax, borrow, and labor until, as soon as human energy can accomplish it, we shall have the strongest navy, the biggest guns, the most ammunition, the greatest fortifications in the world; that the standing army shall be immensely increased, and that every citizen between sixteen and sixty shall begin a course of military training, and be ready for war at a moment's notice. On the other hand, there are many eloquent and estimable enthusiasts who are, in substance, insisting that we ought to scrap our battleships and build no more, disband our army, dismantle our fortifications, and say to the other nations of the earth that under no circumstances will we fight; that we ask nothing of them but justice; that we invoke for ourselves their sense of fairness and honor, but will submit to their enlightened will. The confusion of thought and speech in all these utterances has no parallel save in the story of Babel, with its mixture

of tongues, and we are bound to believe that the horrors of Europe have swept some of our good people into the heights or depths of hysteria.

The first and paramount duty is to make all things ready for an advance in the cause of international peace. The instant the war in Europe ends an opportunity will come to broaden the scope of arbitration, to increase the efficiency of mediation, and to secure the high advantages of reflection and delay.

I halt, however, before the proposal to create a world's tribunal, with power not only to decide but to enforce its awards with armies and navies. To me this means either war in its most objectionable form or the surrender of sovereignty and independence. It is a dream to be realized only when all the people of the earth can unite in a single government, and even then the liberty of the citizen and of great groups of citizens would be in constant peril from the power of interest and the mistakes of ignorance.

When the war closes we shall have the best chance we have ever had to civilize the law of the ocean, and widen the rights of neutral nations in commerce. We ought to go forward upon the hypothesis that peace, not war, is the normal condition of mankind, and that if, unhappily, two or more countries find it necessary to resort to arms the business of peaceful powers shall neither be destroyed nor seriously interrupted. These and like problems inhere in every reasonable plan of preparedness, and they must engage the intelligent, patriotic thought of the men to whom for the time being the government is committed.

With these considerations always in mind, Congress should look into the future with honest eyes and prepare for it with persistent courage. All of us, in office and out of office, hope and pray that an international dispute will never arise that cannot be settled through peaceful methods; but we know, just as well as we know that our government will continue, that a difference may

appear which cannot be adjusted either by diplomacy or arbitration. We know that an indignity may be put upon us which we must resent. We know that an assault may be made upon us which we must resist. We know that there may come a time when we must fight or lose our right to sit in the council of the world. We know that a day may dawn when lives will be the price of liberty, when our territorial integrity can be preserved only with guns, and when our national honor must be maintained by the strength of an army and navy.

It is of no avail to argue about these things, for they are instinctively and everlastingly true, and there is not a sane man in the United States who does not recognize them as simple verities. Those who are preaching peace at any price cannot mean what they say. It is an abasing, destructive doctrine and obliterates all distinction between the freeman and the slave; between courage and cowardice; between the self-reliant and self-respecting nation and the abject, harried dependency.

I am not defending war. It is hateful and horrible in every aspect. It blots and disfigures every page of history. One side has always been wrong and oftentimes both. But sometimes one side has been right; and if it had refused to fight it would have committed a fatal crime against all the generations yet unborn. What if Greece had weakly submitted when the Persian hosts were pouring over her borders? What if Rome had tamely surrendered when Hannibal was hammering at her gates? What if Charles Martel had yielded to the Saracen at Tours? What if Wellington had not shattered Napoleon's dream of universal conquest? What if the Colonies had not dared the English wrath? What if Lincoln, Grant, and Sherman had not been willing to stand for the Union? Let us not deceive ourselves with the flimsy fallacies of an argument which stains with dishonor the brave deeds of the best and noblest of mankind. We have revered the memories of the heroes who fought and died for the priceless things of life, and we will reverence them still.

Clearly then we must be ready to meet the misfortune of war if it is unjustly or wrongfully thrust upon us, and this presents the practical inquiry which Congress must answer: What is reasonably required for the national defense?

I am not skilled in the science of war, and my opinion respecting the instrumentalities of an effective defense is of little

value; but the object to be accomplished is sufficiently general so that the ordinary observer can sit in judgment upon it. Our military strength should be so organized and maintained that it will be impossible, humanly speaking, for any hostile force to land on our shores, or the battleships of an enemy to destroy our coast cities or imperil the lives of their inhabitants. It is said, and no doubt it is true, that oftentimes the attack is the surest defense, but we must forego that advantage.

It will be enough, so far as countries from which we are separated by an ocean are concerned, to have a navy that can prevent foreign troops from safely reaching our country; to have fortifications that will protect our harbors; a comparatively small regular army and a body of land reserves who, although pursuing the avocations of civil life, have had military training and who can be so quickly mobilized that all the nations of the earth will know that they would be met at the water's edge by a force capable of successfully resisting any possible invasion.

The suggestion that we ought to enter upon a program which, when finished, will make the United States the dominant naval force of the world does not commend itself to me; and I have no sympathy with the proposal to enter the mad competition which has characterized the policy of Great Britain and Germany. While the efficiency of our navy ought to be increased, its striking weakness is in its disproportion. Fast cruisers, auxiliaries, and submarines are imperatively needed to establish the balance which any sea force must have in order to be of the greatest value. Congress should take immediate measures to supply the missing elements of our naval strength.

I am a firm believer in preparedness, but I am unable to perceive the necessity of rushing headlong into extraordinary expenditures. While we ought to go steadily forward in the direction of preparedness, there are many reasons which incline me toward deliberation. First, if we are drawn into the present war, which seems most unlikely, there is substantially nothing we can do to prepare for it. Second, the conflict in Europe will end in complete exhaustion, and there is no likelihood that in the near future any great nation will attack us. Third, we ought to study with exceeding care the lessons which the war will teach concerning ocean fighting, and profit by the experience of the unfortunate powers across the sea. Fourth, it may happen, and I fervently hope it will hap-

pen, that peace in Europe will be accompanied with at least partial disarmament and an approach toward the freedom of the ocean.

These considerations do not affect in any wise the policy of preparedness; but they do mightily affect the meaning of preparedness, and the way we should go about our preparation. I am utterly opposed to any plan for the reorganization of the army, including land reserves, that involves compulsory military training, except in certain schools, for if there is not enough patriotism in this country to induce voluntary preparation, the country is hardly worth defending. The regular army requires some enlargement, but we should be conservative about the extent of its increase. For the body of reserves we must either take the national guard or create a federal militia and make the service so attractive that we shall at all times have enough young men with military experience to furnish almost instantly an army of any desired strength.

If the military organization now known as the National Guard is employed to secure and maintain the body of reserves, it must be still further federalized, and important changes must be made in its character and control. It is not certain that the required changes can be brought about without a collision with the Constitution; but, passing the legal questions involved, the modifications which are necessary in order to induce young men to enlist and to make them ready for service in the event of war are: First, its officers of the line must be selected with reference to their education, training, and competency instead of their personal popularity. Second, both officers and enlisted men must receive a compensation which will, at least, enable them to close the year without pecuniary loss. Third, the community in which the men live must be made to understand that the time spent in the work of the Guard is not only necessary for the welfare of the country, but that the service is altruistic and honorable, and should commend rather than disparage those who are engaged in it. Fourth, the Guard ought to be relieved from police duty.

In seven years' experience as Governor of Iowa I found no other obstacle so difficult to overcome in the endeavor to keep the Guard at its full strength, as the fact that, under the law, it could be used to preserve industrial order and suppress domestic riots. It goes without saying that there ought to be an adequate police force in every city and every State to maintain peace and safeguard

life and property; but this duty should not be imposed upon the Guard, or any other form of militia. We all know that militia companies must be made up in the main of young men who work for their living, and they ought to be so made up. These young men are the very bone, sinew and pride of the country, and they will not enlist, as a matter of patriotism, if they know that they may be ordered into such service.

With these reforms in the National Guard, we could speedily have a body of trained men sufficient for any contingency which the future may present. If by reason of Constitutional restrictions the Guard cannot be brought completely under the national control, the alternative is to organize a purely federal militia having the general characteristics of the Guard, and large enough to furnish in a very few years a volunteer army commensurate with our national life.

I do not mention the length of service or the time to be given each year in drill, maneuver, and camp, for these are subjects that must be determined by men of military skill and experience. It is obvious that such a militia must be provided with officers educated in the military science. These officers should not be withdrawn from civil life; for a comparatively small portion of their time will be required. They must, however, be competent, and to secure such competency we might well convert a number of our useless army posts into schools, maintained by the general government, with students appointed in substantially the same way in which they are now chosen for West Point and Annapolis, with a course of study that will fit young men for civil life, but at the same time make them reasonably efficient in military affairs. The graduates from these schools ought to become the officers of the militia whether we continue the State plan or adopt the federal system.

The views I have suggested would not involve a perceptible addition to our present expenditures, if some of the gross extravagances of our present establishment are eliminated. It is my firm belief that if we are broad-minded and patriotic enough to rid ourselves of local considerations, and keep our eyes steadily fixed upon the general good, we can bring about a state of national preparedness without greatly increasing our present expenditures for the army and navy.

In the shadow of the disaster which has fallen upon Europe, it is not strange that the spectre of militarism frightens the people of America. If the only alternatives were

a defenseless country or a nation in the hands of men whose ambitions or profit could best be promoted by war, I would unhesitatingly choose the former. It is, however, unthinkable that the Congress, which alone can declare war, will ever employ our armed forces unless the overwhelming sentiment of the people commands that course. Militarism is impossible in the United States until representative institutions have failed.

There is, however, one element of danger that ought to be removed. The love of money is the most powerful and at the same time the most insidious motive of modern life, and it ought to be made exceedingly difficult for any man or body of men to make money out of war. The Government ought to build its warships, manufacture its armament, make its guns, and furnish all its munitions from its own plants. It ought to do so not only to destroy the baleful influences arising from commerce in such things, but for its honor and safety. While I know that international law recognizes the export of arms and munitions to a belligerent, it should be true that when we become the vital source of the equipment of a foreign army the Government should be responsible for it.

Neither writing nor speaking will do a great deal toward elucidating the subject of the national revenue. It is a hopeless tangle. It is plain to everybody who has the slightest acquaintance with our financial affairs that the next Congress will be compelled either to spend less, tax more, or borrow much. It is rather humiliating to confess that, in a time of peace, so far as we are concerned, the issuing of bonds to meet the ordinary expenses of government is under consideration.

The present administration came into power with an emphatic and rather noisy pledge that it would reduce expenditures and lift the burden of taxation from the weary shoulders of an oppressed people. It must be somewhat staggering to those who are responsible for its policies and practises to compare the promise with the performance. Our expenses have not only not been reduced, but they have been tremendously increased, and a very formidable proportion of the increase has occurred because of thousands of new offices, new employees, and the assumption of new functions the value of which to the people it is very hard to perceive. Moreover, the weight of taxation is pressing more heavily upon those whose contributions must support the Government than ever before. And to make misfortune complete, the cost of living has advanced in a terrifying way. It

is useless to enter upon the details of this riotous waste and flagrant incompetency, for in their general aspects these deplorable matters are fully understood.

The entire collapse of business, which a mistaken tariff policy would have imposed upon the country, has been prevented, in part, only by the unprecedented calamity which has fallen upon Europe. What will happen to us when foreign countries resume their normal conditions, awakens the liveliest apprehension throughout the United States.

This article, however, is not intended as a political criticism but rather as an outlook; and no matter how grave the mistakes of the administration may have been, the next Congress, with a Democratic President, a Democratic Senate and a Democratic House, will face a rapidly diminishing treasury and must take measures to replenish it.

The first and best aid to the sick and wounded would be found in a new tariff law constructed to protect American interests, and at the same time increase the revenue from imports; but, unfortunately, the administration rejects both the medicine and surgery of modern economic science, and adheres to its desolate doctrine of the unprotected market, and so we must look further.

The stamp taxes upon ordinary business transactions ought to be abolished. They are not only irritating and inconvenient, but they are inequitable and unjust. The income-tax law, while complicated beyond understanding in many respects, is essentially sound. It can easily be made the source of more revenue than we now receive. I thoroughly believe in the exemption of small incomes, but the exemption is too large and should be reduced. On the other hand, the rate levied on the very large incomes is too low.

During the continuance of the war we should tax, and tax heavily, the business of manufacturing and selling arms and munitions for export. Nothing could be more just than a measure which would transfer to the treasury some of the unprecedented profit of those who are engaged in such trade.

Sooner or later we shall be compelled to tax great inheritances, either direct or collateral, possibly both. Such an imposition is eminently fair, but if it were practicable it should be preceded by an amendment to the Constitution empowering an adjustment between the State and federal authorities to accomplish uniformity. Whether anything can now be done in that direction is most doubtful; but it is clear that in some way we will shortly reach that source of national income.

A MONTH OF BATTLES

WESTERN "DRIVES" AND BALKAN THRUSTS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. THE WAR COMES WEST AND SOUTH

NOT since the similar period in 1914, when German armies approached Calais and Warsaw, when Antwerp fell and the Battles of Flanders opened, has there been so widespread and considerable fighting on all fronts as in the month of October. In all respects it has been one of the most dramatic, absorbingly interesting and, in point of casualties, terrible months of the world conflict.

In any review of this month of battle three separate fields claim attention. In the West, after months and months of comparative calm, there flamed forth the most desperate offensive on the Allied side since September, 1914. In the East, Russia at last brought the great German drive to a halt and stood inexpugnable behind the Dwina and the central swamps, even pressed forward perceptibly on the Galician frontier. Finally, along the Danube, Germany undertook a third great venture, a terrific drive to force the road to Constantinople, enlisted Bulgaria, compelled Greece to repudiate her agreement with Serbia, forced Rumania to continue her neutrality, and began the work of hacking through the little Slav state and clearing the road by which the Crusaders of other centuries approached Byzantium.

Momentarily the Allied successes in the West, incidental and local, circumscribed and incomplete, commanded the attention of the world,—but only momentarily. For with brief delay, the whole planet became engrossed in the spectacular march toward the Golden Horn of the nation, which, as it marched, affirmed that it purposed to follow the road of Alexander the Great to India, and,—adopting the principles of Napoleon,—endeavor to strike down the British Empire through Egypt.

To one school of observers, many of whose views I share, the Balkan campaign represented the last desperate effort of Germany to destroy, not the armies but the nerves

of her opponents; to close the year by a brilliant and impressive success; to stand at the opening of 1916 with Belgium, Northern France, Poland, and the fringes of Russia in her possession, with the Balkans brought to heel and the road of Teutonic empire running uninterruptedly from Berlin to Bagdad and from Hamburg on the North Sea to Beirût on the eastern Mediterranean.

In such posture Germany could offer peace to her opponents, peace that the people of her opponent nations might listen to, if, as Germany reasoned, they were weary of a war still seemingly hopeless and of sacrifices still outwardly fruitless. Such a peace would mean the retirement of the Germans from Belgium and France, and the restoration of the conditions of 1914 in the west of Europe. It would mean certain surrenders to Russia on the east and perhaps to Italy on the south, but it would leave to Germany and her Austrian ally the hegemony of the Balkans, the supremacy in Turkey, the control of Asia Minor and the roads by land to British India and Egypt.

In sum, it would clear the way for the next step in German world policies, the later struggle to be waged with England alone, or with England and Russia at most. It would represent the confession that sea power had decided the outcome in the North Sea and the Channel, and that French resistance had demolished the earlier notion of French decadence. It would represent a decision to abandon the West for the East and seek the German "place in the sun" along the single land route that was open to German expansion.

But, if it failed, if it did not attain the immediate object, that is, to open the road to Constantinople; if it failed in the larger purpose of capturing the imagination and mobilizing the fear of the enemy, then these same observers recognized that it would have no permanent influence in shaping the result of the war. It would presumably compel the Anglo-French troops to quit Gallipoli. It would mean the extinction of

Serbia, the transfer of Turkish armies from the Dardanelles to Egypt, but it would not break the deadly blockade of the British fleet, it would not lessen the pressure of the Allies in the West, or of Russia in the East; it would redouble the efforts of Italy in the South, threatened with new and more dangerous possibilities in the eastern Mediterranean and along the North African coast.

To the other school of observers it was merely the disclosing of the main purpose of Germany,—the consequence of her successes in the West and the East, which had removed all immediate peril from her own frontiers and permitted her to use a portion of her armies in carrying out purposes and following ambitions long cherished. To them it was an evidence of confidence, not desperation; of wisdom, not madness.

II. LARGER ASPECTS OF THE WESTERN DRIVE

In dealing with the month's operations I purpose first to discuss the larger aspects of the western drive, then the two local phases, the Battle of Lens and the Battle of Champagne. I shall merely review the Russian operations briefly and then take up

the political and the military incidents in the newest of German projects, the advance toward Constantinople.

Turning now to the larger purpose of the Allies in the West, it is simplest to compare the situation in Northern France with that in Poland, when the Germans had reconquered Galicia and begun their advance toward Warsaw and beyond.

Look at any map of the battlelines in the West and it will be seen that the German position in France is a semi-circular front, one end of the curve resting upon the city of Lille, the other upon the fortified lines in the Argonne. Roughly speaking, it reproduces fairly exactly the Russian position, which rested at one end upon the barrier of forts and rivers along the Niemen and at the other upon the swamps south of Warsaw and east of Lublin. The whole German strategy was comprehended in an effort to break in this curve or salient by two great attacks delivered not far from the ends of the salient. Hindenburg struck south from East Prussia, Mackensen north from Galicia. Their objective was Brest-Litovsk, far east of Warsaw, their purpose to cut the lines of communication behind the Russian armies about Warsaw and envelop and capture them.



Photograph by International News Service, New York

PRESIDENT POINCARÉ SALUTES HIS BELGIAN ALLY

Photograph taken while King Albert of Belgium and President Poincaré of France were at the front. The figure in citizen's clothes at King Albert's left is Minister of War Millerand of France.

Look now at the map of the western front and it will be seen that, in attack about Lens and east of Rheims, the Allies were following a similar course, the objective of each advance, that is, the point where the two movements would meet, if they were pushed forward to the uttermost, was Namur, corresponding to Brest-Litovsk in the eastern campaign. The two movements suggest the closing jaws of a pair of pincers, and as they closed they would cut one after another of the lines supplying the German position in France.

Now it was possible in France as in Poland that the success of the double drive might end in the envelopment of the hostile army. But it was utterly unlikely, so unlikely as to need no discussion. But it was more than possible that successful local advances would compel the Germans to retire to avoid ultimate envelopment, just as similar operations had produced the great Russian retreat. Precisely this reason underlay and underlies the selection of the points of attack made by the Allies.

So much for the maximum of possibility, which was the expulsion of the Germans from northern France. In addition there were local fruits that might be harvested. A successful advance in Artois, without compelling a general German retreat, might recover the city of Lens and its great coal districts, imperil the German position at Lille and German hold upon Lille, Roubaix, and Tourcoing, the great industrial cities of northern France.

Similar local success in Champagne would relieve the pressure upon Verdun, drive the Germans away from the suburbs of Rheims by cutting the supply lines of the Crown Prince in the Argonne, compel him to go back, thus abolishing all danger to the eastern barrier forts, ending the joint threat which the Argonne operation and the St. Mihiel salient constituted to the chief bulwark of France.

To understand the October operations in the West it is necessary to keep all the possibilities in mind, the expulsion of the Germans from France, unlikely but possible, the reconquest of Lens and possibly of Lille, the definitive defeat of German operations about Rheims, in the Argonne and north, south, and east of Verdun. The attack was made on the ends, because a frontal attack would not imperil German communications and the German center, from the Oise to Berry-au-Bac, behind the Aisne, was as impregnable as the Russian lines behind the

Bzura and the Rawka had proven in the fall and winter of last year.

Now it is necessary to say, in summing up the larger aspects of the western campaign, that up to the present moment the Allies have achieved no one of their objectives. The maximum possibility, the piercing of the lines in such fashion as to compel a German retirement, has never yet been near. This is what the Germans mean when they talk about the Allied failure, and they are wholly justified. It is equally true that none of the local possibilities have yet been realized, but it is also true that certain local gains, if permanently held, may insure the ultimate realization of the Allied aim to retake Lens, relieve Rheims, and end the Argonne menace.

III. THE BATTLE OF CHAMPAGNE

Taking up the French drive in Champagne as the more considerable and important, it is necessary first to look at the battlefield. Twenty miles due east of Rheims the national highway leading to Verdun crosses another national road coming north from Châlons toward the Belgian frontier. The point of intersection is the little village of Souain. At Souain the Rheims road forks and one branch leads in a winding course to the town of Ville-sur-Tourbe, where it crosses a highway coming north along the western front of the Argonne from St. Menchould. Four miles north of Souain is the town of Sommepey on the Bazancourt-Challerange railroad. Three miles north of Ville-sur-Tourbe is the town of Cernay. Between Cernay and Souain runs the north fork of the Rheims road. Thus we have a parallelogram, with Souain, Sommepey, Cernay, and Ville-sur-Tourbe as the four corners, the Souain-Cernay road the diagonal, and exactly in the center of our parallelogram on this road is Tahure. The distance from Souain to Ville-sur-Tourbe is about ten miles, to Sommepey, four.

Now the immediate purpose of the French was to advance from their lines, which followed the lower side of our parallelogram, between Souain and Ville-sur-Tourbe, resting on the small towns of Les Mesnils, Perthes-les-Hurlus, Massiges, and the Beauséjour farmhouse north of Massiges, until their center reached the Bazancourt-Challerange railroad north of Tahure, their left struck it at Sommepey, and their right occupied Cernay, which the railroad avoids by a wide curve to the north after passing under the hills north of Tahure.



GENERAL JOFFRE, GENERAL FOCH, AND GENERAL D'URBAL WATCHING THE SOLDIERS MARCHING OFF TO THE FRONT

Such an advance would mean the cutting of the Bazancourt-Challerange railroad, one of the two which supply the Crown Prince; it would menace the left flank of the German army fighting in front of Rheims to the west of Sommepey. It would, in fact, thrust a wedge between the German armies in the Argonne and before Rheims, and if pushed on would compel both to retire to escape flank attacks and to restore contact.

The country over which the French had to advance was open, broken only by little clumps and groves of scrub pine and larches. The villages were insignificant, and the hills, the highest under 700 feet, rose from the plain little more than a third of this distance. The soil was chalky; there was an absence of any real military obstacle in the shape of large rivers. The plain itself was old fighting ground. Valmy, where the French Revolution won its first victory, is barely ten miles south of Ville-sur-Tourbe, and the scene of Attila's disaster is to the south of Souain. Last February and March the French had fought a terrific contest on this same field, not less than 500,000 French and Germans contending, and the French losses, fixed by the Germans at 75,000, purchased a gain of 1000 yards on a front of ten miles.

After three weeks of terrific bombardment the French left their trenches on September 25 and carried the whole of the first German line. In this advance and in the incidental operations of the next two days nearly 20,000 unwounded German prisoners were captured, upwards of one hundred field guns, and an enormous booty of smaller instruments of war, including many machine guns. This was the greatest single capture of the French during the war, probably the most serious German loss at any time, certainly a greater loss in guns and prisoners than at the Marne.

Nevertheless, the French did not succeed at once in reaching the German second line. It was only on October 7 that they were able to launch a new drive. This time they made material progress on the Souain-Sommepey road and captured the Navarin farm, a mile and a half south of Sommepey; thence they worked east and took, first the Butte de Tahure above the village of Tahure, and then the village. At this point they were within a short mile of the railroad.

If they were successful in holding this ground the railroad was bound to be closed presently by their artillery fire. But at the moment this is written the Germans are still making counter-attacks and the French hold is challenged.

In sum, the French, thanks to their artillery, which literally abolished the German first-line defenses, won a remarkable local triumph. Measured by prisoners and cannon captured, they advanced from one to three miles on a front of ten. They got within effective range of the railroad they aimed for, but they did not pierce the German third line. They did not actually reach the railroad, and they were, late in October, desperately fighting, not to advance, but to hold their gains, a small fraction of which seems to have been lost.

Measured by the standard of Mackensen's first drive in Galicia, the Battle of the Dunajec,—or of Gorlice, as some German writers call it,—Joffre's success is slight. Mackensen got through all the Russian lines and fatally weakened the Russian hold in Galicia in his first battle. But his opponents were destitute of artillery ammunition; it was rifles against cannon. The Germans in Champagne had ammunition and were able to get more promptly.

On the other hand, measured by earlier French and British efforts in the West, the Champagne operation was highly encouraging. The surrender of so many Germans came as a surprise. Nothing like it had been seen in the war. Yet the first success unquestionably encouraged too great hopes; the later events did much to destroy these. The advance to the Rhine had not begun. The great drive was after all only a tremendous "nibble." Neither in the Argonne nor before Rheims were the Germans forced to yield any large amount of ground.

IV. THE BATTLE OF LENS

The simplest fashion in which to describe the battlefield in Artois is to compare it to a triangle, with Arras as its apex and Bethune and La Bassée as the other corners. Such a triangle is made on the map by the main road from Arras to Dunkirk, which connects Arras with Bethune, the main road from Arras to Ypres, which connects Arras with La Bassée and the local road between Bethune and La Bassée. It is about sixteen miles from Arras to Bethune and to La Bassée; it is less than six from Bethune to La Bassée.

Going north from Arras, the Bethune road passes along the eastern face of a ridge, which starts at the Channel and coming east breaks down into the plain just west of this road, except at one point, seven miles north of Arras, at Souchez, where the highway passes at the foot of the Lorette hill on the west and a number of lower hills to the east which rise between it and Lens. In the May fighting the French had succeeded in driving the Germans east of this road except at Souchez, where they occupied a few houses and fields to the west, at the foot of the Lorette ridge, which the French held.

The Germans, for their part, held La Bassée solidly and all the La Bassée-Arras road except the stretch just outside of Arras, which the French held. North of La Bassée the German position rested on the Aubers ridge, east of Neuve Chapelle and on the forts of Lille to the east of Armétières. It had proven itself impregnable and no serious attack was attempted upon it. But south of La Bassée, between La Bassée and Lens, the British made a sudden advance, supported by a tremendous artillery fire and passing through the little village of Loos, reached and crossed the La Bassée road north of Lens, occupying the outskirts of the village of Hulluch, two miles south of La Bassée and the slopes of Hill 70 just above Lens.

At the same time the French took Souchez, thus clearing the Arras-Bethune road, and drove east for the La Bassée-Arras road at Vimy, six miles south of Lens. The whole operation resembled the game children sometimes play with a rope, when two of them, running with the ends, catch a third in the center and start to wind the rope in on him. But the French were less successful than the British and were held up to the west of Vimy on the edge of the last ridge of the Artois hills. They were also unable to advance due east from Souchez any great distance, being checked and even thrown back by the Germans entrenched in the villages of Angres and Givenchy-en-Gohelle. The loop about Lens was, therefore, uncompleted and it remains so.

Meantime the Germans began a terrific counter-attack upon the British. What success it had remains problematical. But certainly there was an end to the British drive for the moment. On the other hand, it seems clear that unless the Germans can drive the British back from the La Bassée-Lens road and off Hill 70 they will ulti-

mately have to abandon not only Lens but also La Bassée, both of which positions have become dangerous salients.

As compared with the French operation in Champagne, the British attack was small. The advance was on a five-mile front, but the distance covered was about the same as that of the French in Champagne, that is, upwards of three miles. The French operation to the south, from Souchez, was little more than a supporting move, as were British attacks north of La Bassée about Ypres.

The country over which the British fought is fairly level, covered with the slag heaps of the mines, some of which were captured. It was the scene of a victory by Condé over the Spanish and there is, or was, a column commemorating the victory, which ultimately insured French possession in these regions.

As compared with Neuve Chapelle, the British operation showed improvement, and the new army, fighting for the first time on the offensive, earned praise. The original attack seems to have been preceded by the discharge of gas clouds by the British, thus indicating that they have borrowed the device, which cost them so dearly at Ypres in the spring. Rather more than 5000 unwounded prisoners and above twenty-five cannon were captured by the two Allies in Artois, but the Germans made some counterbalancing captures. In the subsequent counter-attacks of the Germans Field-Marshal Sir John French reported that over 7000 bodies of Germans lay along his lines, an evidence of the desperateness of the German effort.

Like the Champagne operation, that in Artois remains incomplete. The Allies have not broken through, they have not reached their immediate objective, but they have taken positions, which if held may lead to the retreat of the Germans and the acquisition of the points aimed at. Retirement from Lens and La Bassée would threaten the German position in Lille. It would also compel the Germans to make their next stand in the low plain east of the Artois ridge and west of Douai, where the country is far less advantageous for trench work. Finally it would give the Allies possession of the Paris-Arras-Dunkirk railroad, one of the two great trunk lines which is in German hands from the environs of Arras to the outskirts of Lens south of Loos.

Probably the next month will determine whether the Germans can hold on either at Lens or at Sommepey. But there is no prospect now that their front in either region can

be pierced; and the most that will be attained is the reconquest of some parts of French soil and the relief of certain imperilled French positions. The cost of these operations to the Allies is estimated by the Germans at 200,000, about one-third for the British and two-thirds for the French. The Allies estimated the German loss in the first three days at 120,000, including nearly 30,000 unwounded prisoners. Since then their loss must have been heavy by reason of their counter-attacks.

If there be anything in the belief that the Germans will lose ultimately by attrition, the cost of the recent operations in the West must have contributed materially to the coming of the end, particularly as the fighting about Dwinsk and the new offensive in Serbia were taking a terrible toll. But such expectations are rejected by many military observers, including all the Germans. They seem to me just and reasonable; but I should like to emphasize the fact that they are rejected by many whose views are entitled to respectful attention.

V. RUSSIA ESCAPES AND TURNS

When I closed my review last month the Russian retreat had reached another crisis. Having held out at Vilna, long after the world had expected the evacuation, the main Russian army was suddenly threatened by a German envelopment, which placed it in the gravest position it had occupied during the whole campaign.

Coming east from Kovno, the main Russian army had taken position in and around Vilna, one of the most important railroad points in western Russia. While it was making good its stand here, the Germans had collected an enormous mass of cavalry and made a colossal effort to throw this cavalry around the northern flank of the Russians, reach its rear, and cut the railroad and highway leading south and east to Minsk. In the last days of September Berlin announced that the road and railway had been cut and German cavalry lay across the line of retreat of the Russians. London and Petrograd faced the possibility of the loss of an army of 300,000 with frank apprehension.

But the Russian army was not enveloped. Coming south and east along the Vilna-Minsk railroad and highway, it literally threw the German cavalry out of its path, as Napoleon rode down the Bavarians who attempted to close his road to France after

Leipsic. Road and railroad were presently cleared, the Russian masses escaped the closing jaws of German thrusts from the Niemen on the south and the Vilia on the north and with the escape the end of the great retreat seemed to have come.

As it now stood, the Russian line ran behind the Dwina from Riga to Dwinsk, where General Russky, the victor of Lemberg, had held Field-Marshal Hindenburg for many weeks, and from Dwinsk almost due south through the Pripet swamps just east of Pinsk to the Rumanian frontier. Behind it ran the Petrograd-Vitebsk-Kiev line, giving it a north-and-south communication, while from the Pripet swamps south the Vilna-Lutsk line was also behind the Russian front. There was no longer a solid front, but three groups of forces, one along the Dwina, the other west of Minsk, the third west of Kiev and in front of the fortress of Rowno.

In the next few weeks there was a slow but sure dying down of German effort, then a concomitant mounting of Russian activity. Far in the South General Ivanoff took the offensive and won back the fortress of Lutsk, temporarily, captured many thousand Austrian prisoners, and for the time being at

least disposed of the talk of an advance to Kiev and to Odessa. In the center, in the Pripet swamps, smaller gains were made, but Russian offensives were reported by the Germans who no longer claimed to be advancing.

Only about Dwinsk did the Germans continue their efforts with earlier energy and despite these efforts no considerable progress was made. The line of the river was not forced and in places the Germans were driven away from the stream. Riga held out; Dwinsk remained in the Czar's hands. Two things were becoming plain: one that the weather had interrupted the German advance, the other that Russia was rapidly getting an adequate supply of ammunition and bringing up newly equipped forces who were giving good account of themselves.

A little later it was to be discovered that the withdrawal of troops to make the drive through Serbia was responsible for the abandonment of the German campaign against Russia. But this could only mean that Russia was now to have that respite so long desired; that she was for some weeks or months to be free from the terrific pressure which had endured since April; that she had, in fact, escaped destruction, had not



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

BRIDGE-BUILDING BY THE GERMANS IN THEIR PROGRESS THROUGH RUSSIAN POLAND

been eliminated. The effort of Germany to dispose of Russia in 1915 had failed as had the effort to dispose of France in 1914. Terrible as had been the toll taken from Russia in lives, extensive as had been the territorial gains, Russian resistance was not broken, Russia was not conquered, was indeed returning to the attack with the same energy that had taken her armies to the crests of the Carpathians a few months before.

For the general public the new campaign along the Danube quite banished all thought of the old operation closing along the Niemen. The extent of German victories in the field and on the map served to establish the belief that German victory had become inevitable. But behind this superficial view, naturally encouraged by the Germans, lay the patent fact that a year of war had not disposed of any one of the four great foes of Germany; and the cost in German lives had been out of all proportion to her resources as compared with those of her foes. After six months the Russian campaign seemed closing in what was a German defeat, in that the main purpose, the elimination of Russia, had not been achieved, and was not seemingly within German grasp.

VI. IN THE BALKANS

Turning now to the Balkans, I intend to make only passing reference to the political circumstances and confine my comment to the military. Bulgaria's adherence to the Teutonic cause was always assured unless the Allies were prepared to restore to her all that she had lost in the second Balkan War. This they could not do without antagonizing Greece, betraying their gallant Serbian ally, and driving Rumania into the German camp. Failing this they had to expect that if Germany ever chose to come south, Ferdinand and his associates, who were pro-Austrian, would take the Kaiser's shilling.

That the Allied statesmen hoped Greece would join them when Bulgaria took the other course was plain. They relied upon Venizelos and behind Venizelos were the Greek people and the Greek legislature. But at the critical moment the King of Greece, whose wife is a sister of the German Emperor, interfered. He believed Germany would win. And he was satisfied that German success would destroy Greece and surrender the New Greece to Bulgaria, if Greece did not stay neutral. He controlled the Greek army, and at the critical moment

he dismissed Venizelos, overset the great Cretan's policies, and deprived the Allies of a necessary recruit.

Thus at the moment when German cannon were beginning to send shells upon much-bombarded Belgrade, Bulgaria, having mobilized and declared her intention to stand with the Central Powers, was free to use all her forces against the Serbs. The Allies had only a small force in the Near East, which was directed on Salonica, and Serbia was left practically alone. Rumania, in this situation quite naturally declined to enlist. She and Greece both were bound by treaty to protect Serbia against Bulgaria; but both took the reasonable if not courageous view that their treaty did not bind them to defend Serbia against Austria, Turkey, and Germany.

For the moment there was even a question as to whether Greece might not resist the Allied effort to land troops at Salonica for service in Macedonia. But the Allied fleets were too strong a force to encourage such a course. Greece submitted to the Allied landing; she proclaimed a policy of benevolent neutrality, which suggests "watchful waiting," and Venizelos, still commanding a majority of the Greek legislature, was forced to tolerate the new Greek ministry to avoid the proroguing of the legislature, which would have left the country without a parliament until the war was over,—for the Greeks were already mobilizing and there could be no election.

For the second time Constantine had dealt a terrible blow to the Allies. He had prevented Venizelos from sending an army to the Dardanelles in the spring, and insured the failure of the first effort made there by the fleets. Now, when the Allies had relied upon the Greek army to hold Bulgaria in play until they could send troops to Serbia, he had intervened again. Paris and London talked darkly of a revolution and a new king. But Greek public sentiment seemed finally to be reconciled to the course of the Hellenic King, as it became clear that the Allies were unprepared to meet the situation with large armies of their own.

On the German side the landing of Allied troops at Salonica provoked loud protests, and indignant comparisons of this act with the German invasion of Belgium. The parallel is not good because Serbia had, under the terms of her alliance with Greece, the right to lease waterfront lands at Salonica and transport her troops over the Greek railroads to her own frontiers. Under this treaty British and French soldiers and guns had

been going to Belgrade for many months, and there had been no protest. Germany, of course, had no such agreement with Belgium.

In the Near East the Allied prestige sank rapidly. In Paris and London there were bitter comments. Delcassé left the French ministry, and Sir Edward Grey was assailed as never before. Italy resolutely resisted frantic appeals to go to the aid of Serbia. She cared little for Serbia, who was a prospective rival in the Adriatic. She was not at war with Germany, and her armies were making little progress in the North despite heavy losses. In a word, on the morrow of the enthusiasm excited in Allied capitals over the western victories, there came a diplomatic disaster of appalling proportions. Men talked openly of the need of abandoning the Gallipoli operation. Lord Milner was one of the most outspoken, and there was a scene in the French Chamber, provoked by those who opposed risking French troops in the Near East before the work of liberating French soil was completed.

It would be easy to exaggerate the permanent importance of this sudden outburst of criticism in the Allied countries. Those familiar with American Civil War history can recall many such incidents in Washington, particularly in 1864. But, for the moment, there was a break in confidence and in calmness hardly equalled since the Battle of the Marne. Nor is it too much to say that there were in France and Britain alike signs

pointing toward very complete changes in ministries, if the Near Eastern affairs continued to grow more dangerous, and if the German campaign ended in a complete success and Serbia followed Belgium into captivity.

VII. THE ROAD TO CONSTANTINOPLE

From the military point of view the German campaign in the Near East is simple in the extreme. From Belgrade to the Bulgarian frontier, following the valley of the Morava and its tributaries, runs the highway along which the Turks had marched to Vienna in their greater days. Up this valley from the Danube at Belgrade, and from Semendria, ran two railway lines, which united a few miles south of the latter city, and reached Nish, a hundred miles south of Belgrade. Nish is the temporary capital of Serbia and the present center of Serbian military life.

At Nish the railroad divides. One branch goes southeast to the Bulgarian frontier east of Pirot, some fifty miles from Nish, and thence through Sofia and Adrianople to Constantinople. The other branch leads due south into old Macedonia, passing through Uskub and Kuprili, passing by the battlefield of Bregalnitz, where Serbia defeated Bulgaria in 1912, and Kumanovo, where the Serbs overwhelmed the Turks in 1912. Just south of Guevgheli it crosses the Greek frontier, and some fifty miles further south reaches Salonica.

The purpose of the Germans was comprehended in a quick and overpowering thrust south along the railroad from Belgrade to Nish and the Bulgarian frontier. Once there they would have a clear road to Constantinople over Bulgarian rails; the munitioning of Turkey would be assured and the peril that the Gallipoli operations had constituted for the Turks would be abolished, for German guns and more German officers could be sent to the Golden Horn and the Dardanelles forts.

The Bulgarians had other designs. They would naturally move north from their frontiers upon Nish, taking the Serbians, who were fighting the Germans, in the rear. They would also push up the narrow Danube valley from Widin, opening the water route through the Iron Gates. But their main thrust was bound to be south of Nish and aimed at Macedonia, which was to be their reward for joining the Teutonic alliance.



THE BALKAN COUNTRIES

(Showing the railroads about which the present fighting is centered)

In 1913 Savoff had attempted to win Macedonia by making a sudden attack upon the Serb army just south of Uskub, while he sent a small force to the south to cut the Nish-Salonica Railroad about Guevgheli and thus separate the Serbs and the Greeks, who were their allies.

Savoff failed because his forces were too small for their ambitious task. The Bulgarians were defeated south of Uskub and driven across the mountains to their own territory above Kustendil. The Greeks defeated the forces sent against Guevgheli and completed the eviction of the Bulgars from Macedonia. At Bucharest the frontiers were laid down in such a fashion that Bulgaria approached the Nish-Salonica railroad at only two points, near Vranja, in the Serbian kingdom of 1912, and at Guevgheli. These were naturally the danger points now.

By invading Macedonia and cutting the Nish-Salonica railroad the Bulgarians would be able to occupy all of Macedonia north of the Greek frontier, but they would be helping their German allies to the north, because when they had cut the railroad line they would have isolated Serbia and prevented the arrival of Allied reinforcements and munitions which could only come by this railroad.

To meet this danger the Allies hurriedly debarked two French army corps under General Sarrail at Salonica and began sending them hastily up the railroad line to Guevgheli. But there remained the possibility that they would come too late.

Here was where the Greek defection proved costly. Had Greece struck north with her army, Bulgaria could neither have attacked Serbia in the rear south of Nish, because of the menace for Greek armies in Thrace, nor made rapid progress against the Nish-Salonica railroad, because this would have been covered by the main Greek mass. But Greece was out of the situation and the Serbian peril was unmistakable.

On October 10 the Germans forced the Danube before Belgrade and Semendria. After desperate house-to-house fighting in the Serbian capital the Serbs, with their British artillery supports, were driven south; and the German army, well across the Danube, began the march up the Morava valley. A week later they had made just eight miles. In their own reports they conceded the severity of the fighting and the desperate character of the Serb resistance. But it was plain that the resistance could not endure,

if the Allied reinforcements were long delayed.

Already the plight of the Serbian army suggested that of the Belgian but a year before; and the Serbs were as eagerly and as vainly looking for the coming of the French and British as the Belgians had watched between the attack on Liège and the final dispersal at Louvain. At the same time Bulgarian armies were beginning to press upon the Serbs southeast of Nish, and another Bulgar army was attacking about Guevgheli. A third force was starting at Vranja, south of Nish, to cut the Nish-Salonica railroad. A complete silence veiled the movements of the French and British. They were known to have landed in Salonica. Athens reported that they had moved north four days after the Germans entered Serb territory. But where they would appear, or whether they would arrive in time, remained doubtful, although the success of one detachment in occupying Strumnitza, east of Guevgheli, and winning the railroad at the latter point has just been reported.

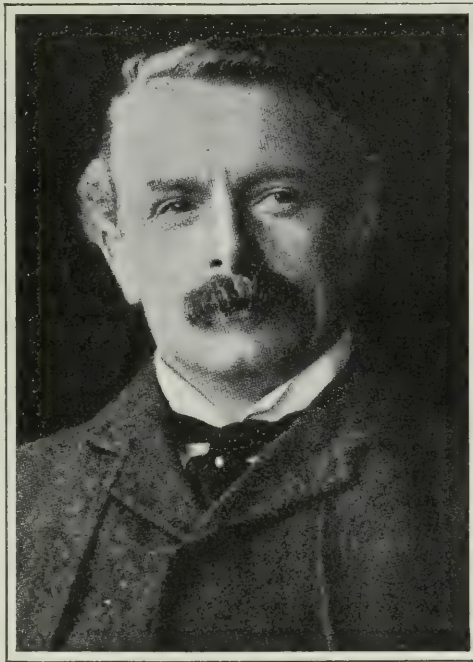
Meantime, France, Italy, and England declared war upon Bulgaria. Russia promised to send her Black Sea fleet to the Bulgar coast. There was the further promise of the coming of Russian troops to the Balkans,—presumably a landing force on the Bulgar coast. But as these lines go to press on Wednesday, October 20, the movements of all the allied contingents remain in doubt, despite the landing of forces at Enos, east of the Maritza.

Whether the army on the Gallipoli peninsula will promptly be moved across the Egean to Salonica and sent to Serbia; whether the Dardanelles campaign will be abandoned; whether Italy will finally consent to send troops to the Balkans,—these things are among the possibilities of the next few days, but the answer is still unknown. All that is clear now is that Serbia is making a terrific fight, perhaps her last, to hold the Morava valley and the railroad to Constantinople. So far she seems to be fighting single-handed, and to be going back slowly, but steadily. Unless she is presently helped, the end cannot be long postponed. If the German victory is complete, there is growing reason to believe that Rumania may at last be forced in on the side of the Central powers; and a new attack upon Russia will certainly result. Thus this review ends at one of the most dramatic and critical moments in the war.

LLOYD GEORGE: MINISTER OF "WHAT-MOST-NEEDS-DOING"

BY LEWIS R. FREEMAN

"E'S the bloke wot they gets to do wot no other bloke can't, or else is 'fraid to," was the way I heard a Cockney "publicist" characterize Lloyd George in an informal Hyde Park debate a few nights ago. Every distinguished London leader writer was trying to say more or less the same thing about this time,—it was the day after the undaunted little Welshman's remarkable speech before the Trades Union Congress at Bristol,—but, although most of them succeeded in expressing their thoughts in diction somewhat more elegant and less obscure, not one of them hit the nail so squarely on the head. For Lloyd George has both ability and courage,—how high an order of each scarcely a day that passes but furnishes new evidence—and his indeed have been, and will continue to be, the tasks that lack of "grasp" or nerve has made all other



RT. HON. DAVID LLOYD GEORGE, BRITISH MINISTER OF MUNITIONS

British statesmen of the day unequal to. The salient facts of the "Shell Muddle," and of how a special "Ministry of Munitions" was created to cope with the difficulties arising out of it, are probably fairly well understood in the United States by this time. Less generally known, perhaps, is the fact that the fatal shortage of high-explosive shells which cost the British so frightfully in their attempted offensive of last April, and which has been responsible for incalculably great changes in the course of the war on both Eastern and Western fronts, was clearly fore-

seen by Lloyd George,—as a consequence of a visit he made to the fighting lines at that time,—as long ago as October, 1914. Impatient of civilian interference, the officials of the responsible department turned a deaf ear to the earnest warnings of the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, and, pinning their faith to their traditional shrapnel, laid the train of certain and all but irretrievable disaster.

Repulsed by those who should have been most vitally interested in what he had to reveal, and, as has since transpired, alone among the cabinet ministers in an appreciation of the real needs of the war, Lloyd George resolved to bend his every effort to bringing the truth home to the British Government and the British people before it was too late. The alarm note rang clear and unmistakable through a speech he made at Bangor, Wales, as long ago as February 28, the keynote of which was expressed in this passage:

This is an engineer's war, and it will be won or lost owing to the efforts or shortcomings of engineers. We need men, but we need arms more than men, and delay in producing them is full of peril to the country. We must appeal for the co-operation of employers, workmen, and the general public; the three must act and endure together, or we delay and may imperil victory. We ought to requisition the aid of every man who can handle metal.

In spite of the great prestige which the

Chancellor of the Exchequer enjoyed even at that time, the grave import of this remarkably prescient utterance did not appear to strike home in any one of the several quarters where it might have had a useful effect. The Ordnance Department was, indeed, striving feverishly to increase the munition output, but, tape-bound and hide-bound, made the fatal error of placing full dependence upon the time-hallowed system of obtaining supplies through the chief armament firms and sub-contractors. It is now plain that these, even under normal conditions, could have turned out nothing approaching an adequate shell supply. With railways and ports congested with transport work, and with transoceanic shipping facilities greatly reduced,—at times raw material was two months coming from New York to Birmingham, and six weeks from Liverpool to London,—their breakdown was almost complete. One firm which contracted to deliver 1,000,000 shells last April had ready but a pitiful 10,000; another contracted for 500,000 and delivered 45,000. To make matters worse, many of such shells as did become available were not of a character best suited to the work in hand, while many tenders from entirely responsible American firms had been entirely ignored.

As an inevitable consequence of all this, the long-heralded "spring drive" got no farther than a few lines of German trenches, and these were won at a cost of lives unparalleled in previous warfare. Moreover, a really considerable French advance, the ultimate success of which was largely dependent upon British coöperation, was almost stultified by the failure of the latter, and, worst of all, the Germans, safe for an indefinite period against any powerful offensive on the Western front, turned on the Russians—then almost ready to begin streaming down through the Carpathian passes onto the plains of Hungary—and started that stupendous eastward drive the end of which is not yet definitely in sight.

AN OFFICE CREATED TO MEET A CRISIS

The British Government, like the American, while it may on rare occasions venture to give a lead to public opinion, can never for long refuse to follow a public which has once taken the bit in its teeth and resolved on a course of its own. Once the press and public began to shout for shells there was no use trying to deny the demand, and because the old channels of supply were still clogged with red tape and incompetency,—and because, also,

the War Office was staggering under its mighty task of putting new armies in the field,—a "Ministry of Munitions" to cope with the special needs of the situation was decided upon. With the keen, incisive McKenna, of the Home Office, amply equipped to fill Lloyd George's portfolio as Chancellor of the Exchequer, it was only natural that the head of the new department should be the one cabinet minister who had foreseen the necessity of it almost since the outbreak of the war. This is how it happens that a little man with the sunniest of smiles, the kindest of eyes, the warmest of handclaps, and a love of his fellow men in his heart as great and inclusive as that of anyone that ever lived, is bending his unquenchable energy, his matchless talent for organization, to the sinister task of building up for England a war supply machine which will, in the fulness of time, rival that of Germany itself. This goal, it hardly need be said, has not yet been reached; nevertheless, though there are many obstacles, both seen and unseen, yet to be surmounted, it is well in sight.

THE DEPARTMENT OF MUNITIONS: A GREAT GOVERNMENT MACHINE

How this miracle,—for even to have brought the order of to-day out of the chaos of yesterday is little short of a miracle,—has been all but accomplished in a short five months, it has not yet been given to the public to know in detail. But one does know that the machine,—in spite of the fact that it was compact of units assembled from the ends of the United Kingdom,—was started with a minimum of "lost motion" because its parts were selected with the greatest judgment and care, and that it has run truer as day followed day as a consequence of being "oiled" by the rare tact and matchless persuasiveness of the "Chief Engineer."

The new Minister of Munitions, after picking out the best personal and technical assistants that were at liberty to come to him,—and such was the need that few indeed were the duties of civil or military life that were allowed to take precedence of shell supply,—set to work by laying out the whole country into districts, each under its own responsible committee of management. This body in each case consists of a number of heads of local manufacturing firms, assisted by a technical expert appointed by the Minister of Munitions. In each district a bureau is established for the purpose of giving advice, information, and direction to the factories in its own area. The engineers of



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

MR. LLOYD GEORGE CONFERRING WITH REPRESENTATIVES OF MINE OWNERS AND OPERATIVES PRIOR TO HIS SETTLEMENT OF THE WELSH COAL STRIKE

this bureau decide such questions as the kind of work the existing machinery of any given factory is best fitted to perform with a minimum of alteration; the character and quantity of new machinery needed; the competency of any factory to handle adequately a given order; and what advances of money any factory is justified in demanding for war work extensions.

Through the reports of its committees in each district, the Ministry of Munitions in London has an intelligence system which, working in a manner very similar to that by which that greatest of coöperative concerns, the California Fruit Growers' Exchange, controls its marketing, enables it to anticipate and prevent congestion of orders in one district, or a shortage of orders in another. In short, England, through its Ministry of Munitions, is doing as a last resort what it is rather more than likely America, in a similar position, would do at the outset,—that is, applying ordinary business methods to war supply.

GETTING CONCESSIONS FROM THE LABOR UNIONS

By a similar system of district control, labor,—the most heterogeneous lot of it ever

engaged in one class of work since the building of the Tower of Babel,—is kept track of and sent where it will do the most good. Indeed, the handling of the laborer,—both as a man and as a workman,—as Lloyd George realized at the outset, was,—and is,—the crux of the whole problem. The most unskilled and unschooled of volunteers,—everybody from noble dames and university professors to costermongers and girls from the sweatshops of Houndsditch and Petticoat Lane is included in the thousands who have taken this way of showing their patriotism,—have had to work side by side with the most highly trained machinists, and in inducing the Trades Unions to concede this and other of their bitterly-fought-for privileges Lloyd George was credited with one of the cleverest strokes of his career. It should be explained that these concessions from the unions,—they included also an agreement not to strike while on war work, and an undertaking to suspend restrictive regulations limiting the output for a given time,—were secured through reciprocal agreements on the part of the government that the conditions formerly prevailing should be restored after the war, that there were to be no "lock-outs," and that the "war profits"—the abnormal receipts due to engag-

ing in munition work—should be strictly limited. Nothing approaching so amicable an understanding between capital and labor, or rather between government and labor, had ever before occurred in British industrial history.

WILL THE UNIONS KEEP FAITH?

But masterly as were Lloyd George's conciliatory efforts in persuading Labor to promise to suspend so many of its established rights for the period of the war, an infinitely more baffling as well as a far sterner task awaited him in seeing that the agreement was observed. Everything considered, in fact, it may be said that upon whether or not the Trades Union men live up to their part of the bargain is going to depend the success or failure of the whole war work organization. The organization itself is rapidly becoming all that can be desired, and the arrangement between master and man as defined in the Munitions Bill is nearly ideal. Furthermore, as the employer is practically in the hands of the government, it is out of the question for him to avail himself of any unfair advantages even should he be so inclined. This has put the whole thing up to Labor, with the latter's attitude being largely dependent upon how well it was satisfied with the way matters were going under the agreement.

THE CONGRESS AT BRISTOL

For the most part, it appears, the men have had confidence in the guarantees of the government, and as a consequence have held scrupulously to their undertaking. A considerable minority, however, encouraged by agitators who chafed under the restrictions upon their normal activities, suspecting that the "profiteering" of many of the war work firms was not being curbed according to promise, retaliated by evading not only its own agreements but also by endeavoring to spread dissension in the ranks of the more patriotic majority. This had been going on for some time, greatly, it is needless to say, to the detriment of the munitions organization, when the Trades Union Congress assembled at Bristol in the second week of September.

Considering the incalculably grave issues hinging on the attitude of the British workman toward munition manufacture, it is not too much to say that this was the most important labor gathering ever assembled. At the opening sessions the conference was notable for the unexpected appreciation of the weight of their responsibilities manifested by

the delegates, and there was no doubting the sincerity of the patriotism of a great majority of them. The comment of press and public was highly commendatory, and even the unanimous resolution passed by the Congress against compulsory service was generally interpreted,—and probably correctly,—as no more than a protest against a somewhat premature newspaper campaign to that end.

THE "WAR-PROFITS" CHARGE

But toward the end of the conference the discontent which had been smouldering amongst a section of the delegates finally broke out, and the deliberate charge was made that the government was doing little or nothing to limit the abnormal "war profits" of the employers, and that these were, therefore, waxing fat at the expense of the working man. They were being robbed by their old enemies, these malcontents declared, and they challenged Lloyd George or anyone else in the government to come before the Congress and prove to the contrary. It was the sorriest blunder,—from his own standpoint, I mean,—that the British labor agitator ever made; but to the patriotic British workman the sequel brought in upon him such a flood of enlightenment that,—as far as munition manufacture is concerned, at least,—he will no longer have excuse for stumbling on in the darkness of half-knowledge which has heretofore been responsible for the many pitfalls he has been led into.

LLOYD GEORGE'S REPLY

Up in his beehive of an office in Whitehall Gardens word of the challenge was flashed to the Minister of Munitions, and, recognizing with unerring instinct not only the threat but also the incomparable tactical possibilities of the occasion, the little "Lion of Wales" snatched up the gantlet with eager hand. There was no time to prepare a set speech, but,—if it was the straight truth the representatives of British labor wanted,—the straight truth they should have. He had been bursting with the pressure of the "straight truth" for weeks, and here was the chance of a million to relieve himself of the accumulating burden. There was no chance to round out sounding phrases, sharpen the point of epigrams, polish ornate perorations; the best he could do was to clean up the imperative business on his cluttered desk and catch the train to Bristol.

So it was that he came to the representatives of British labor as one man comes to another man, his words straight from his



Photograph by Central News

MR. LLOYD GEORGE SPEAKING (IN WELSH) AT A GREAT MEETING HELD AT CARNARVON, WALES

heart, his blows straight from his shoulder. But he spoke from a heart aflame with indignation, he struck from a shoulder steeled by the weight of courage behind it. He came to explain, he remained to accuse, and his accusations were no whit less lucid, less convincing, less irrefutable than his explanations. He found the Congress, half-truculent, half-condescending, and taking not a little credit to itself for its magnanimity in listening to what he had to say; he left it,—the preponderant, well-intentioned majority abashed, chastened, enlightened, and repentant, the malcontent minority baffled and beaten.

Lloyd George began his speech by telling the delegates to the Congress that they represented the most powerful force in the life of the country. "With you victory is absurd; without you our cause is lost." Then, recalling to their minds a resolution they had passed a few days previously pledging themselves to assist the Government in carrying on the war, he told them that he was there to take them at their word. To the charge that the Government had not kept its promise to intercept "war profits," he replied by showing how the state had taken control of practically all the engineering works of the country and was appropriating their profits and employing them in the prosecution of

the war. Simply but convincingly, he showed that the Government was carrying out completely both the letter and the spirit of its promises. "I have seen resolutions passed from time to time at trades union congresses about nationalizing the industries of the country. We have done it. The whole of the engineering industry of this country . . . is now state-controlled, and the profits they make out of the war are annexed for state purposes. That is better than any resolution you have ever carried, and when the experiment is made why not acclaim it? If you won't accept a great leap forward along the path you want to go you will never get there."

Something of the magnitude of the munitions supply task was sketched in these words: "We have set up sixteen national arsenals . . . and are constructing eleven more. We require in order to run those,—the old and the new,—and to equip works which are at present engaged on turning out the equipment of war, 80,000 more skilled men, but we require in addition to that 200,000 unskilled men and women. At present you have only got fifteen per cent. of the machines which you could use for the turning out of rifles, cannon, and shells working night shifts. If you could get plenty of labor to make these machines go night and day,—ah,

just think of the lives that could be saved! . . . We are not trying to displace skilled workmen by unskilled. We have not enough skilled workmen to go round. There is a good deal of work being done by skilled workmen now, highly skilled men of years' training, which can just as easily be done by those who have only a few days' training. We want to turn the unskilled on to work which these can do just as well as the highly skilled, so as to reserve the highly skilled for work which they alone can do. . . . Take shell-making, for instance. Instead of putting skilled people to that work, what we should like to do would be to put on, say, ten or eleven unskilled men or women to one skilled man to look after them."

After having made out an air-tight case for the government, the speaker wheeled from the explanatory, the defensive, to a sudden and swift offensive that fairly swept his already chastened hearers off their feet. "The reports we get from our own offices, the War Office and the Munitions Department, show that if we had a suspension during the war of those customs which keep down the output, we could increase it in some places 30 per cent., in other places by 200 per cent. Between 30 and 200 per cent.,—well, I will hardly need to tell you that makes the difference between victory and defeat in the quantity you could turn out and place at the disposal of our armies."

Then, adding instance to instance, piling proof on proof, the speaker went on to show them how their persistence in these very trade-union practises which they had undertaken to suspend had been hampering the munitions supply at every turn, rising to a dramatic climax in pointing out the shame of their having even gone to the length of interfering with Belgian workmen. "The Belgian workman has several reasons for putting his back into his work. But whenever he has worked his best he has always been warned that he was breaking some trade-union custom. He has been invited to desist, and he does not understand it. His home has been destroyed, his native land has been ravaged, Belgian women have been dishonored; Belgian liberties have been trampled under foot; and Belgian workmen cannot understand entering into any conspiracy to keep down the output of rifles and guns and shells to drive the oppressor from the land which he is trampling under foot. I do say that if there is any man who wants to dawdle while his country is in need of him, do let him have the decency at least not to

appeal to Belgian workmen not to avenge the dishonor of their country."

The head of many an honest British workman was bowed in shame after these scathing words had been spoken, but not a one of these but was lifted up to cheer when the Minister of Munitions, with a fervent but kindly appeal for help and co-operation, brought his speech to a close and rushed off to board the train which was waiting to take him back to London and the fresh accumulations on that desk in Whitehall Gardens.

THE NEW AGREEMENT

From Belfast to Birmingham, from the Clyde to the Thames, British labor writhed under the lash that had been laid along its broad, bare back. Then its fine manliness and pride asserted themselves, and, setting its sturdy shoulders, British labor arose and began to put its house in order. Small but highly representative delegations from all classes of workmen hurried to London, and the papers bore brief word of various and sundry conferences which were being held at the Ministry of Munitions. Finally, on the 18th of September, a fresh undertaking on the part of labor was announced, by which, —to use the language of the London correspondent of a New York paper who showed me an advance copy of the document,—“the workmen agree to cut out the frills and get down to brass tacks.” The London dailies meant to convey the same thing when their headlines read “The Men Will Play the Game.” The latest agreement is very similar to that which was entered into at the time the Munitions Bill was passed, but the conditions which have brought about a renewal of the pledges, as well as the ring of sincerity in the pledges themselves, bode more brightly for a future which cannot but be troublous at its best.

There have been many more finished oratorical efforts in the course of English history than Lloyd George's speech before the Bristol Labor Congress, but I have serious doubts if there has ever been one fraught with greater import, not only to those whose representatives were addressed, but to all of the British Empire and the most of Europe as well.

MODERN BUSINESS METHODS AT THE MINISTRY OF MUNITIONS

Knowing Lloyd George's adeptness of men, one expects to find in the personnel of the Ministry of Munitions a reflection of

its head. He will not be disappointed. Energy, efficiency, common sense,—one breathes them in the very air of Number 6, Whitehall Gardens; and what a blessed relief it is to the seeker of information who has become accustomed to cooling his heels, and incidentally his enthusiasm, in the endless series of ante-rooms that form the advanced outposts of the "Hollies of Hollies" of the War, Home, and Foreign Offices! In a half hour I secured a fund of data in the Ministry of Munitions which,—if the pursuit had not been given up in despair in the meantime,—would have consumed anywhere from two days to two weeks of waiting and wandering in the gloomy precincts of the other ministries of Whitehall. The filling out of a simple blank form took me direct to a clear-eyed, clear-thinking young secretary who promptly told me all he knew himself of what I was after, and who, the while he talked, made appointments over the 'phone at his elbow with the several other secretaries who were able to furnish the remainder of the information desired. The Ministry of Munitions is the only place in England where I have seen the telephone brought to anything approaching the same usefulness as in the average American business concern.

AN ACCESSIBLE MINISTER

If he is in, and not in conference, Lloyd George may usually be seen,—often on a few moments' notice,—by anyone whom his secretary deems warranted in requesting the privilege. But he will not, in the present stress, be interviewed for publication; nor will he send a "message to the public," or undertake to answer any written questions submitted, the preferred method of the British Cabinet Ministers. I may, however, set down a little incident which occurred outside of "6, Whitehall Gardens," to show the marvelous touch in which the Minister of Munitions keeps with the endlessly ramified departments under his control. The day after the now famous Bristol speech I

chanced to be lunching at the St. S——, a well-known political club near the Houses of Parliament, with a technical expert of the Munitions Department, a bureau subject to, but separate from, the Ministry of Munitions. Lloyd George, another Cabinet Minister, and a couple of M. P.s were at a near-by table.

"Lloyd George doesn't know me from Adam," said my friend, "but I cannot miss the chance to congratulate him on his great speech. It's going to mean smoother going for us in all departments."

Stepping across to the Minister of Munitions' table, he extended his hand, with a word of explanation as to who he was. Lloyd George, who had been accepting a running fire of felicitations without rising, was on his feet in an instant. "You're C—— of the B—— E—— Company. I know. You came from South Africa at your own expense and have been working in the Munitions Department at a fraction of your regular salary. You have been in the hospital for a month with chronic dysentery, and have only



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

MR. LLOYD GEORGE CHATTING WITH AN OLD-AGE PENSIONER

(Miss Lloyd George in the background)



MR. LLOYD GEORGE BUYING A FLAG FROM HIS DAUGHTER ON FRENCH FLAG DAY IN LONDON

been back at your desk for a week. It's a shame I haven't even sent word to tell you, and the other chaps with you who have come from the ends of the earth to help us, how deeply we appreciate your sacrifices and services. I don't know what we should have done without you all. By the way, isn't there a young American explosive expert from Johannesburg working with you,—a chemical engineer named Q——, I think it is? Please tell him how especially fine I think it is that he should have joined us to 'do his bit.' I'm going to get around to see you all before long."

"By Jove!" ejaculated C—— as he rejoined me; "I was so taken aback that I quite forgot to congratulate him on his labor speech. Think of his having such a line as that on our work!"

A half hour later C—— took me over to the Munitions Department, and, in a huge oak-panelled room overlooking St. James's Park, I was introduced to Q—— and a number of other "high-explosive" experts who had literally "come from the ends of the earth to do their bit." China, India, Peru, Mexico, California, Africa,—men who had made their marks in all of these places were there, each one bending his energies to a single end,—the creation of munitions of war.

They were just straggling back from lunch, and the talk was mostly of other places and other days,—of sport, of *shikar*, of journeys with caravan and *safari*,—but to one who had settled down and begun to sort the blueprints on his desk I made bold to put a question of more immediate import.

"When all is said and done," I asked, "how goes it with munitions?"

"We really know nothing definite about that here," was the reply. "For ourselves, we are just getting down to real work, just beginning to make ourselves felt, and, although we have already increased the output of high explosives many fold, it is not a patch upon what we will be doing in a few months. And, if peace does not come in the meantime, by a year from now I expect to see England one huge munition factory, with every available man, woman, and child in the country doing some kind of war work. *That* or peace,—our peace,—is what is going to come."

Thus the click of the cogs of the great munition machine which Lloyd George has created and set in motion, and, save for an occasional ominous grind where the labor wheels jog out of true, everywhere the even hum tells the same story: "We have already done much; we are getting in shape to do much more; and,—*we are with it to the end.*"

As for Lloyd George himself,—"the uncrowned Prime Minister," as some have begun to call him,—what of his future? The Minister of "What-Most-Needs-Doing" is probably the best answer. As Chancellor of the Exchequer he saw his country through the chaos of the first months of the war when the pillars of the financial world were shaking to their foundations, and to-day, as Minister of Munitions, he is finding the way out of another chaos no less baffling. To-morrow, should the unrest among the miners, railway men, and others develop to a point where a more serious problem than that of shells was created, we should doubtless hear of Lloyd George as Minister of Labor. Or again, exigencies might place him at the head of a department created to throw the last ounce of his country's industrial effort into the scale. At any rate, come what may, on the bridge of whatever craft of the British "Fleet of State" that needs the most careful steering, there will be found "the little Welsh bloke wot they gets to do wot no other bloke can't," turning his "keen, untroubled gaze home to the instant need of things," and bringing his ship safe to port.

MILITARY TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

I.—RESULTS IN THE SCHOOLS OF SUMTER, S. C.

BY LEON M. GREEN

[The following article relates the interesting experience of Sumter, S. C., in making military training a part of the public-school curriculum. Sumter is one of the progressive cities of the South. It will be recalled that the "city-manager" plan of municipal government was first tried out in Sumter.—THE EDITOR.]

WHAT has been accomplished in the size is limited, but in order to make the experiment a part of the public-school curriculum. Sumter is one of the progressive cities of the South. It will be recalled that the "city-manager" plan of municipal government was first tried out in Sumter.—THE EDITOR.]

Sumter (S. C.) graded schools in the periment and perfect the military feature, training of boys for military service, with- only a nominal sum was needed. The Sum- out implanting in their plastic natures a ter schools have about 900 pupils, a small majority thereof being boys.

For fifteen years these schools, which have received the highest praise from Dr. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, have graduated boys with ample military training but not once has the subject of militarism been broached to them.

The organization of a military company in the Sumter schools took place fifteen years ago when a committee of the boys asked the superintendent if they could form a company and drill. These boys, of course, had no

thought of war and the idea has never been instilled into their minds at any time during the years that the system has proved to be such a success. The object was solely to develop the boys physically and mentally.

So novel was the idea of a military company in a graded school at the time that Su-



PROFESSOR S. H. EDMUNDS
(Superintendent Sumter Graded Schools)

Sumter is a town of approximately 11,000 population, about evenly divided between the white and black races. Sumter has an excellent citizenship and this citizenship is devoted to its educational interests. Necessarily the income for schools in towns of this

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perintendent S. H. Edmunds had great difficulty in securing rifles for the boys. This he did after Senator Tillman went to the War Department at Washington in person to see about the matter. The rifles for the nineteen boys in the first company were then purchased from the Government.

For the first few years there was a gradual evolution. Boys are not accustomed to be commanded by boys of their own age, and it would not do to discipline them too severely all at once. No revolution was possible; only by very gradual changes could the full military discipline be realized.

After the first year or two it was found advisable to employ a regular commandant for the military companies of the schools. The commandant has always been a graduate of the Citadel, the Military College of South Carolina. This institution takes high rank among military colleges and is popularly known as "the West Point of the South." The commandant, in addition to his military duties, is a member of the teaching force of the schools. All the officers are students of the schools, except the major of the battalion, who is the commandant. In fifteen years the little company of nineteen boys has grown to a battalion of four companies numbering 200.

The boys in the military are from the sixth grade grammar school through the fifth year high school, ranging in age from twelve to nineteen.

It was not necessary to make this military feature compulsory. It is a natural part of the school work just as the boys' studies are, and they fall into the drill just as naturally. The drill period is only fifteen minutes per day, immediately before the recess period. This has been found to be the most suitable time to have the drills.

Uniforms are inexpensive, and are worn only on dress occasions. The uniform consists of blue coat, white duck trousers, and white duck cap, costing altogether less than \$5. The blue coats and, in fact, the trousers and the caps can be used by the boys after the school term is over. In the Southern States, at least, the attire is ample for the summer months.

The military organization at the Sumter schools is not in conflict with the class organization. For instance, a student who is captain of his class and marches the boys out from the classroom, is frequently a private in the battalion. Thus he is one minute giving orders and the next minute receiving

them! In this way he is taught the highest discipline.

There is sufficient reason other than the military training given for the system in vogue at the Sumter schools. Necessarily the training received by the boys makes for bodily development. The exercise of fifteen minutes daily drill gives an opportunity to every boy to work himself gradually into athletic trim, many of the boys being too frail at the outset to indulge in any violent exercise. However, a natural outgrowth of the military feature has been the tendency toward physical exercise of a beneficial nature on the part of the boys. The record of the Sumter schools in State athletic circles stands high, two football championships for high schools having been won and a high standing in track athletics being maintained. Military training has been strongly urged for college students, especially those who do not make the football or baseball team. The most important development, however, to the boys in the military is not physical but mental. The concentration required in going through the manual of arms and the intricate drill formations is a mental stimulant to the growing youth.

Many of the boys in the battalion are twelve, thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen years of age, in addition to the older ones ranging up to nineteen years of age. As a matter of caution, therefore, no ammunition is used in the drills. The companies are instructed, however, in the method of handling a gun; in fact, all the mechanism and military tactics of firing are gone through with, except the actual placing of ammunition in the guns. As the boys grow older they get their target practise in other ways, as most of them hunt, and, later, many of them join the local militia.

In connection with field maneuvers, the Sumter Battalion has the "open order" work. This gives actual training in war-like executions, including practise in getting into a skirmish line and the accompanying deployments. There is no element of the "extended order" that is not taught the boys. A movement is on foot to form a number of military companies in nearby towns and out of this is expected to grow a sort of competitive warfare practise, including sham battles, among the various schools' military organizations.

The Sumter Light Infantry, the local company of the State militia and one of the crack military organizations of South Carolina, is recruited practically entirely from



ONE OF THE COMPANIES OF THE SUMTER GRADED SCHOOLS BATTALION

the graded school graduates. Almost all the company's officers had training at the high school. They were fitted there for military service and they took naturally to rifle practise. Many of the high-school graduates have acquitted themselves in an exceptional manner at military institutions, including West Point. A number of them also have become officers in the National Guard of the State of South Carolina.

The Sumter school boys are well drilled and they go through all field movements, not only in company but in battalion formation. No feature of infantry maneuvers remains untaught, and all instruction is in the hands of an expert military man from one of the best institutions in the country.

Medals are offered by individuals and by the Sumter Light Infantry for proficiency in drill, and this interest on the part of the townfolk stimulates the boys to perfect themselves in their military exercises. An annual dress parade in battalion formation is held and in this the public evinces great interest. A competitive drill in the manual of arms is held at commencement time at the concluding exercises of the schools and

the best individual showing is rewarded with a gold medal.

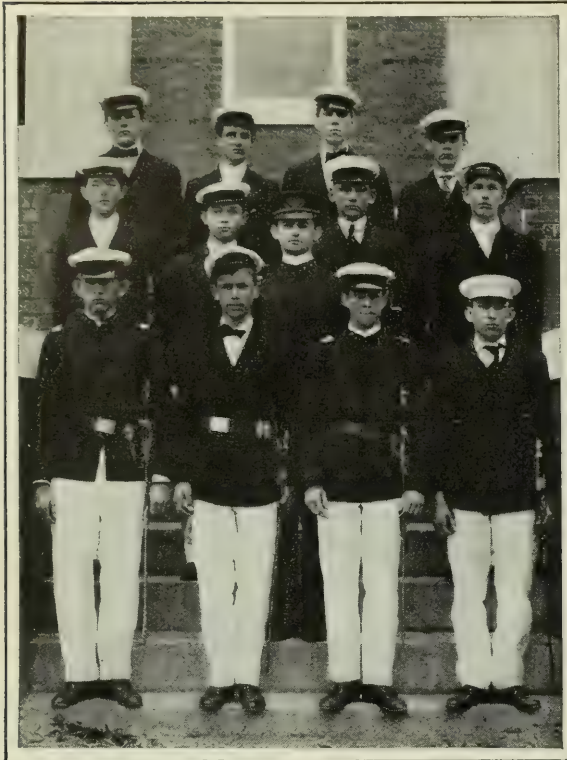
The system has been given a thorough test and at the end of the fifteen years the superintendent of the schools and the people of Sumter and the students themselves believe the idea a good one and that the practical results have proved the military feature beneficial in several ways:

First, the boys themselves are more enthusiastic now than the first little band of nineteen were fifteen years ago when they came to him and asked him to organize a military company for drill. The boys wish the system to remain in the schools and they prove this by their interest.

Second, the Sumter schools have the United States record for holding a large percentage of boys in the high school. This is attributed in a large measure to the military feature.

Third, the lessons in attention and concentration and the inculcation of the ability both to obey and command are splendid results of the military feature.

There are other considerations, too. The adolescent boy, as everyone that comes in con-



OFFICERS OF THE SUMTER GRADED SCHOOLS BATTALION —
(The commandant, a "citadel" graduate, in the center of the group)

tary training that would be useful in time of war, but we have never taught the boys that the training had back of it the sinister motive of war. Indeed, they have been instructed neither for nor against war, in the military department of our schools.

Dr. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, characterized as "a truly remarkable record" the work of Superintendent Edmunds in keeping the boys and girls in the high school. Analysis of figures presented at the time of the bulletin issued by Dr. Claxton in 1912 showed that exceptionally few fall by the wayside in the Sumter school system. The figures for that year showed sixty-three in the first year high school; sixty-three in the second year; sixty in the third year, and fifty-five in the fourth year high school. The graduates the year previous numbered fifty-three, of whom thirty-one were boys. Of these forty went to college, an almost unprecedented proportion for high school graduates. In the last two years a fifth year high school has been added to the schools, proving still further that the boys and girls continue in the high school as long

tact with youth knows, requires some outlet as possible. The fifth year high school does of a physical nature and the military training gives this in satisfying measure. The work of the first year at the average college. Those who cannot attend college, therefore, get practically one year's college work at the local high school. The increase in the training is admirable. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that the boy is not taught to fight. Preparedness of a military nature pace with the increase in the total enrollment of the schools. Dr. S. C. Mitchell, a noted if the occasion ever arises, the boys trained educator, declared that the question "How to in the Sumter schools will be prepared to shoulder muskets. at the Sumter schools.

The fifteen years' experience in the Sumter schools shows that boys can be trained for the military without the sinister motive of war.

The danger of the war idea in military training is recognized and many requests have come to Professor S. H. Edmunds, superintendent of the Sumter schools, for information as to how the system in Sumter managed to avoid instilling militarism into the minds of the boys. At a recent meeting of educators in Chicago, Professor Edmunds explained the holding of the boys in the high school and the military feature in his schools. Said he:

Attributing a great deal of the success in holding the boys in the high school to the military training, and refuting the charge that military instruction destroys the individualism in the pupils, Mr. Edmunds says:

One of the most distinctive features of our schools is the emphasis of the personal element. Each pupil is made to feel that he is an individual, not a mere cog in a machine. He is led to believe that there are those who have a genuine interest in him; that if he falls by the wayside, he will be missed. He is made to realize that he cannot afford to handicap himself in life's race by inadequate preparation; that he owes it to himself, to his family, and to his city to take advantage of every opportunity within his reach, to fit himself for his place in life.

We have obtained the result of giving mili-



A PARADE OF GERMAN "BOY GUARD" COMPANIES

II.—MILITARY TRAINING FOR GERMAN YOUTH

BY ALFRED GRADENWITZ

[Dr. Alfred Gradenwitz, of Berlin, the author of the appended article, has for some years been a contributor to the periodical press of Europe and America. Some of his articles have appeared in this magazine. Dr. Gradenwitz writes on social, scientific, and economic subjects, most of his work at the present time dealing with topics related in some way to the war. In the following article he gives an interesting account of the influence of the war on educational methods in Germany, apropos of the unique exposition recently held in Berlin, entitled "School and the War." At a time when military training in our schools is being so widely discussed, especial interest will attach to the writer's statements regarding not only military training in Germany, but the manner in which the various studies in the school curriculum connect themselves very practically with the different branches of the military art.—THE EDITOR.]

THE exposition at Berlin known as "School and the War" is most instructive as showing the influence which the war, having wrought such modifications in the thinking and feeling of nations, is exerting in more ways than one on the education of the rising generation. At this exposition one may follow in detail the manifold changes made by war in the curricula of German and Austro-Hungarian schools. Some of these changes, it is true, may have developed spontaneously as a result of circumstances; others are the outcome of consistent planning.

Geography, for instance, a dry-as-dust subject to most pupils, may be wonderfully enlivened by reference to the events of the day. And how many pupils, once decidedly averse to mathematics, have developed a sudden liking for that subject since the discus-

sion of problems in surveying, distance estimation, and so forth, forms an important part of the instruction! In physics much attention is bestowed on the study of trajectories of projectiles, aviation, and kindred topics. In chemistry nothing could be more interesting than the problems connected in some way or other with the present war and its concomitant phenomena,—explosives, artificial fertilizers, chemistry of food, and so forth.

Teachers need no longer be afraid to touch problems of social economy and the psychology of nations which the juvenile mind in normal times would lack maturity to understand. In fact, there is everywhere a preference for practical problems, and, though it might be dangerous to go too far in this direction there is no denying that pupils are



SIGNALLING PRACTISE FOR THE "BOY GUARDS"

far more whole-heartedly attentive, far more zealous than in the past, and that the stupid resignation which generally characterized the attitude of pupils toward the school, is tending more and more to disappear.

Changes of a peculiarly radical sort have been made in the field of physical training. Gymnastics, at least in the upper forms, no

longer constitutes the central feature of this branch of education. Shortly after the outbreak of the war a joint manifesto by the German Ministries of War and Education called on the youth of the country, from the age of sixteen onward, to devote themselves to the service of the Fatherland. Participation in military training thus suggested was not made compulsory, since it was believed that enthusiasm would become more general under a system of voluntary service.

It may indeed seem strange that the idea of military training for the young should not have had its origin in Germany, generally considered the cradle of militarism. In fact, however, England and her dominions have long had Boy Scouts and juvenile regiments, and the idea has even been adopted in France, where individual liberty is so highly prized and where former Boy Scouts are now assured of a more rapid advance in the army. Even Russia has tried to do something in this way.

Whoever has had an opportunity to see these lads, with their knapsacks on their backs, marching through the streets of some town or city on their way to the woods, their natural drill grounds, must have been pleased to note their martial deportment and vivacious countenances. Military training, apart from its immediate usefulness, is bound to exert a beneficial effect on body and mind. Military practise in the open air will exercise uniformly all muscles and limbs, strengthen the heart, and stimulate the lungs to energetic work. Thanks to the courtesy



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

MILITARY PARADE OF BERLIN SCHOOL BOYS AT TEMPELHOFFER FIELD

(The presentation of flags given by the Kaiserin, who is represented by Prince Frederick Leopold and General von Wachs).

of German civil authorities, it has been possible to conduct these exercises in the outskirts of the towns, where the air is pure and bracing.

All the various tasks of military practise that can be performed without arms,—marching, field duties, guard duties, ground practise, signals, and so forth,—are gone through. The training takes place on two afternoons of the week, as well as frequently on Sundays and during vacations. For example, the boy companies of one of the Berlin Latin schools had practise for several days before and after New Years in the Harz Mountains, in spite of the snow and ice. The fact that on the afternoons set apart for military practise there is less time left for the pupils to prepare their lessons is recognized by the school authorities, who reserve the days following practise for extempore work. Moreover there is good reason to assume that the young men strengthened by military practise will show greater working capacity than the average city boys. Teachers who have been soldiers in their younger days are entrusted with the drilling.

By reducing, wherever desirable, the age limit to fifteen years, it has been possible at every school to recruit at least one strong boy company, numbered and incorporated in the great league embracing them all. In

order to insure uniformity of training, this branch of physical education has been placed under the control of a royal general commission.

Apart from the purely military preparation, which has stood in good stead all those called to the colors, the general training of the body involved in these exercises is of the highest importance. The training and discipline of the mind, however, are possibly even more valuable. As pointed out in the joint manifesto of War and Education, mentioned above, the formation of boy companies is intended to cultivate not only military order, punctuality, and sense of duty, but courage, obedience, foresight, energy, and comradeship. In this respect it will even have a social mission to fulfil by joining men of the most diverse social classes, drawn closely together by the war, and insuring mutual understanding.

From the German viewpoint, the military training of the youth is the last link, as it were, in the long chain of phenomena constituting the much-hated militarism, which after all is only a subordination of individual interests to the social weal. Not only the present, but the rising generation as well, is thus placed in the service of society and effectually prepared for the tasks awaiting it in the future.



A COMPANY OF "BOY GUARDS" ARRIVING AT A RAILROAD STATION

WHY NEW YORK CITY NEEDS A NEW SCHOOL PLAN

By WILLIAM A. PRENDERGAST

(Comptroller of the City of New York)

[Under the charter of the metropolis, the Comptroller has not only a large measure of authority over the finances of the great municipal corporation, but he has also both opportunity and power to influence the policies that govern the expenditure of public money. Mr. Prendergast has shown himself an official of rare courage, ability, and aggressive energy. During recent months he has become the enthusiastic advocate of the so-called Gary system of carrying on school work. Mr. William Wirt,—whose brilliant success at Gary, Ind., has made that town more famous for its schools than the Steel Corporation has made it for its industry,—has of late been in New York assisting the school authorities in adapting the Gary methods to several of the city's schools. Mr. Prendergast in this article tells the reasons why he so staunchly advocates the Gary plan for New York, and in doing so gives us a very good idea of what the system is. The better utilization of school facilities is not exclusively a need of New York: it is a crying need of almost every city in the United States.—THE EDITOR.]

NEW YORK CITY needs a new school plan. Here are some of the reasons:

First, the ever-increasing city expenditures, causing burdens upon real estate, which most people agree are now becoming intolerable.

Second, the inability of the present New York school system to make adequate provision for a complete day's attendance for the children who are of school age; in other words, the part-time evil.

Third, the failure of that system to equip the children of the city with a knowledge which must underlie a successful business career.

PRINCELY OUTLAY ON NEW YORK'S SCHOOLS

Since the consolidation of New York and Brooklyn, January 1, 1898, to and including the year 1914, the city has spent for schools and sites the sum of \$105,690,207, being 11.23 per cent. of all its capital expenditures during that period. The city has spent for salaries for the elementary, high, training, and vocational schools, during the same period, the sum of \$283,283,647; for supplies and the maintenance of the physical plant, \$83,328,032. The expenditures for salaries have increased in that period 351.4 per cent., although the increase in average daily attendance has increased only 85.6 per cent.

These figures show that the city has not been niggardly. One-fifth of its maintenance charges this year for all purposes represents the outlays for the Department of Education. The time has come when greater care in expenditures is being exercised in all depart-

ments of government. This greater care contemplates the curtailment of expenditure wherever necessary, but its larger aspect is the utilization of funds in order that the best possible results will be secured. Consequently, those who are charged with making New York City's appropriations are concerned, not so much with limiting the expenditures of the Department of Education, but rather that those expenditures shall in every possible respect bring results that measure full value for every dollar that is paid out, and that in spending the vast sums of money that are required for education every year, this money will be used for the children in the most beneficial ways.

INADEQUATE HOUSING,—THE "PART-TIME" EVIL

According to official figures, on September 15, 1915, there were in the elementary schools of New York City 141,360 children receiving less than five hours' instruction per day. This means that the *present school plant* is either entirely inadequate or that the plant has not been utilized to its full capacity. Up to a year ago the only remedy the school authorities seemed to have in mind was the building of more schools.

The building of schools without due regard to the real needs of different localities accounts in part for the inability of the Department of Education to-day to take proper care of the children. There is over a million dollars represented in the purchase of sites which are not being used at all by the

Department of Education, and probably never will be used. These sites were acquired without due knowledge of what the requirements of the communities really were, and the consequence is that the city is sustaining considerable loss in carrying them because a rental sufficient to cover the carrying charges cannot be secured. For several years the condition of the real-estate market has not permitted the city to dispose of these properties except at a loss.

Further, investigation during this last year has shown that there are a number of school buildings which are not required at all and could be given up. All of this goes to show that, assuming that the city will perform its full duty toward the children, it cannot provide them with an adequate education unless the moneys that it is in a position to spend for this purpose are disbursed with good judgment.

ADMITTED FAILURE TO REALIZE EDUCATIONAL IDEALS

People in the city's educational system will naturally resent the charge that the children of the city are not properly equipped in an educational way, but it is with facts and not with the injured feelings of interested persons that we must deal. Evidences multiply that the boys and girls of this city, even those who graduate from the high schools, are found deficient in the fundamental requirements of an elementary education. Only a few months ago the manager of one of our greatest business establishments made this charge publicly. It was not denied by the educational authorities; in fact, some of them admitted the charge. A very recent report from one of the associate superintendents of the Board of Education also confirmed this charge, his views being based upon an actual investigation which he had personally conducted.

WHAT THE GARY PLAN CAN DO FOR NEW YORK

Is it any wonder, therefore, that the municipal authorities should demand that hereafter the schools of the city shall be conducted upon the two principles, first, that the children should receive a well-grounded education, and, second, that the great expenditures for which these authorities are held responsible should be used solely for the benefit of the children and no part of them for the purpose of creating a great political machine, as has been charged.

Fortunately, the city is not without means

for relieving the situation that has been described. It need not be contended that there is only one plan which will bring about this relief, but up to this time only one substantial plan has been suggested, and that is the Gary idea.

In May, 1914, the Mayor of the city, accompanied by the President of the Board of Education and others, went to Gary, Indiana, for the purpose of studying its school system. It is not material who suggested this visit; the important thing,—and for it entire credit must be given to Mayor Mitchel,—is that he took the initiative in investigating this plan and in advocating its adoption by the City of New York. Now, what does this plan do?

The Gary plan provides a full school day for all school children. If it were put into operation in New York City, not only the children upon part time but the remainder of the 758,000 children on register in the elementary schools of this city could have at least a six-hour school day. One of the reasons why the educational results of our system have proved inadequate in my judgment is the fact that the schools do not provide a sufficient number of hours of instruction for the children. The school day is too short and the schools are idle too long during the summer; both day period and school terms should be extended.

This is not entirely a layman's opinion. Educators of the country have for a number of years been very seriously considering the extension of the school year. Recent reports of United States Commissioner of Education Claxton have approved the idea; recent reports of the City Superintendent of Education in this city, Mr. William H. Maxwell, have also approved it. So in advocating an extension of the school year city officials, as far as they believe in that principle, are simply urging the adoption of an idea which is favored by some of the leading educators of the country. The fact is that the children of this city are under instruction approximately 950 hours per annum, or one-ninth of their entire time.

When money was withheld by the city authorities this year for the teaching force in the summer schools, made up of opportunity classes and others engaged in industrial work, a wild protest went up from the teachers' organizations on the ground that it would tend to deprive the children of the benefits of summer schooling; but when it is proposed that the school year itself be extended the teachers and their organizations

just as wildly protest that there is no necessity for any such extension. This would undoubtedly mystify the mind of one who was not familiar with the reason. The reason is that the summer schools which have heretofore been conducted mean extra pay for the teachers. An extended term would simply mean that the teacher was required to teach during such period as the Board of Education demanded, with no increase in the annual salary. Officers of teachers' organizations who vehemently protest against any effort to extend the school term, on the ground that it would prove both physically and mentally debilitating for the teachers, are found among those who take advantage of every opportunity to teach special classes, night schools, and summer schools, for which they receive extra pay.

The school is regarded as the factory for character building. If the school is to exercise the necessary influence in respect to character building it should have the child within its control a longer period than it has at present under New York City's system.

AN EXPERIMENT WITH A BROOKLYN SCHOOL

One of the principal advantages of the Gary plan is that the number of children that can be accommodated in a single school building will be almost doubled. This statement is sustained by the experience of that system in the two schools in New York City in which it is now on trial, namely, School 89 in Brooklyn, and school 45 in the Bronx.

School 89 was selected for this experiment because there had been a persistent demand from the people of that particular section of Brooklyn for a new school building. It was not to be denied that the present school failed to house the children of the neighborhood. The indignation of parents at their inability to secure instruction for their children was justified, and the city officials were execrated because they would not authorize the expenditure of a large sum of money for a new school building. Consequently, Mr. Wirt, the virile-minded founder of the Gary system, was asked to experiment with School 89.

He had one of the most difficult school problems in the entire city; he solved it. Obstacles which had appeared insurmountable to the average school-master were nothing to him. Our learned educators, the associate and district superintendents, most of whom are to-day opposing the introduction of this system generally into New York

City, had been unable to find a means of relieving the conditions in School 89. It was necessary to bring a man from the outside in order to do this, a fact which will be interesting to those who indulge in cheap talk against importing talent from outside of New York.

Why did not our own educators find the way for solving this difficult school problem? Then it would not have been necessary to send for Mr. Wirt or anybody else. The trouble is that too much deference is paid to the "mossbacks" in the educational system. They are treated too seriously; the more seriously you treat them the more dignified you make them, and they are really able to arouse some public sympathy for their reactionary views. They should be laughed at; then they would be brought to their proper level.

If the Gary plan, or the duplicate school idea, were generally adopted great economies could be effected in expenditures for new school buildings. Even the partial examination which has thus far been made by Mr. Wirt of the city's physical school equipment leads to the belief that about 20 per cent. of the present school buildings could be abandoned. When real-estate conditions improve, the buildings and lands could be sold and a very considerable sum realized therefor. Whatever is realized would be an offset to the expenditures required for completely installing the Gary system. How can anyone dispute the efficacy of a plan such as this, as against the old principle of putting up an expensive school building, which costs, exclusive of land, from \$250,000 to \$500,000, with the usual result that it does not cure the part-time evil?

A considerable expenditure will be required to accommodate the present school buildings to all the elements of the Gary plan. No definite figures upon this question have been submitted. Such approximations as have been made by reliable people indicate that the cost would be small compared with the cost under the old system of putting up a great many new school houses; and, of course, there will be a credit against this cost in the moneys realized from school sites that will be abandoned.

DUPLICATE SCHOOLS IN SINGLE BUILDING

Under the Wirt plan, two duplicate schools occupy the same classrooms, auditorium, gymnasium, shops, library, playground, and other facilities alternately. By making the total capacity of the shops, audi-

torium, the gymnasium, and the playground equal to that of the class-rooms, science laboratories, musical and art studios in aggregate, Mr. Wirt is able to house two duplicate organizations in one set of school accommodations. His principle is to use all the educational facilities in a given community all of the time. He has discovered that all of the children need not be doing the same thing at the same time. Even the public libraries may be used during school hours by the school children, and the use of the school auditorium need not be restricted to the traditional fifteen minutes in the morning.

SPECIALIZING THE INSTRUCTION

The Gary plan not only adds to the ordinary school facilities better-equipped workshops and more of them, playgrounds which are supervised by trained attendants, auditoriums fitted with moving-picture apparatus, libraries, music and art studios, science laboratories and even swimming pools,—all with a smaller aggregate outlay for plant than would be required under the old scheme,—but it also extends the traditional curriculum. To the three R's it adds instruction in the physical sciences and in the arts and industries, thus providing greater opportunities for vocational training, and this without increasing the teaching cost. Its adoption will open the way for enlarged and enriched opportunities for the children of the city.

The Gary plan has demonstrated that the quality of instruction may be raised by departmentalizing the work throughout all the grades of the elementary school. A teacher who is skilled in music, drawing, any one of the sciences, sewing, shop work, and the industrial arts or domestic science is assigned to teach that particular subject to several classes instead of trying to instruct one class in all subjects.

The new plan opens to all teachers opportunities to specialize along the lines for which they are best fitted and this must necessarily raise the standard of instruction.

ECONOMIES IN COST OF TEACHING

The Gary plan not only proposes vast economies in expenditures for school buildings, but it also points to a substantial reduction in the cost of teaching service. In Gary the school system is operated with a teaching and supervising staff which does not exceed the total number of classes instructed. In this city a large corps of teach-

ers, supervisors, and directors of special branches are required in addition to a regular teacher for each class, all of which helps to increase the size of the budget. Mr. Wirt's saving in teachers and supervisors is accomplished by having one teacher who is especially adapted to the work manage several classes at one time in the auditorium and playground. He has demonstrated that in this way the work can be made more efficient with less supervision than now obtains.

It is needless to say that any suggestion looking to the curtailment of the number of those publicly employed means opposition, and that opposition takes on tremendous force when it is realized how strongly entrenched in a political sense is the educational system of the city.

This is the reason it is difficult to get legislation that will enable the city to bring school expenditures down to a proper level. The very suggestion in the Wirt plan that under its operation the number of teachers required can be limited to the number of classes in the school, thus doing away with a good many of the so-called specialists, the supervisors of teachers and the supervisors who supervise the supervisors, has created the greatest opposition against the Gary idea. Whether entrenched bureaucracy is going to win against useful modern ideas will depend entirely upon the intelligence of the people of the City of New York.

Mr. Wirt makes the school the central clearing-house for all the educational activities of the community. He proposes to use the libraries, churches, museums, art galleries, parks, playgrounds, private music studios, and even settlement houses as adjuncts to the school proper. Under his program one period of the school day is available for outside activities. During this period the child may leave the school and go to the church for religious instruction, to the home to assist in household duties, to the private music teacher for instruction, or he may visit the public library or the museum. While all these outside facilities are utilized, the amount of time given to regular academic instruction is in no wise reduced. On the contrary it may be increased.

This is an outline of what the Gary plan will do. It is the only plan that has presented a real germ of relief to New York City's difficult school problem, considered from the viewpoint of both education and finance. Attempts are being made to patch New York City's school system with limited imitations of this plan, but why should the

people of the city tolerate the introduction of mere imitations when they have at their disposal the real thing?

All of the views and conclusions drawn in this statement from its beginning to the end serve to prove one thing and that is that the present Board of Education is too large properly to discharge the great duty that is reposed in it. An effort, led by Mayor Mitchel, was made in the last legislature to reduce the membership of the Board

of Education to nine. Personally, I believe that the board need not consist of more than five members,—a small, strong, working board of trustees, filled with the idea of their trusteeship and unswayed by the political machinations of those within or without the educational system.

The Gary plan is highly desirable, but a small Board of Education is essential to the success of this or any other intelligent educational plan.

THE ORIGINATOR OF THE GARY PLAN

IT is a question whether the city of Gary, Indiana, is not known more widely today by reason of its excellent schools and novel methods of teaching than for the great steel works that gave it birth. Not only the school buildings themselves and their equipment, but especially their varied curriculum and the system by which it is applied have been pronounced as unsurpassed.

The Gary plan, as it has become known, (and which is dealt with in Comptroller Prendergast's article) seeks to furnish the pupil with work and study and play, and to make every one of these things attractive to the children. It seems to give to schools a new meaning and a greatly enlarged usefulness, banishing the cramping routine of the past, opening up opportunities for vocational and industrial training, solving the part-time problem by literally creating two schools where only one grew before, and tying the schools into the everyday life of the community in such a way as to make education more real, and interesting, and worth while for the future citizens.

To inaugurate any radical changes in educational methods requires a strong man. Dr. William A. Wirt, the founder of the Gary system, though of quiet and unassuming manner, possesses great poise and strength of character. These qualities have stood him in good stead when facing antagonistic city officials, educators, and others who questioned the efficacy and practicability of the Gary plan. Especially hard has been the grilling which he has received in New York City, where the Gary plan is being considered for general adoption, and where it is already in operation experimentally in two difficult and widely separated schools.

The value set on Dr. Wirt's ideas and services by New York City officials may be gathered from the fact that the city is appropriating \$10,000 in the budget for the current year to compensate Dr. Wirt for spending one week out of every four as official advisor to the Board of Education. This price has been considered high in some quarters, but in the opinion of others, Dr. Wirt has already demonstrated that his services would be cheap at double the price.

Dr. Wirt comes of Middle West farming stock, and although an exponent of new methods in education, is himself a product of the traditional system and existing institutions. He was born at Markle, Indiana, forty one years ago, attended public schools and De Pauw University, and did post-graduate work at the University of Chicago. Goettingen and Berlin also contributed to his academic training. In England, France, and Germany, Dr. Wirt made a study of the educational methods in use in those countries. His ideas first brought him into public notice when he was Superintendent of Schools at Bluffton, Indiana, in 1900, but it was as head of the Gary schools that he has become a national figure and a center of municipal and pedagogical controversy.

There is in his new system much sweeping away of old-time methods. The freedom he allows the child in the process of absorbing his school knowledge appals the conservative. "When I was a youngster," he told an audience of Methodist ministers not long ago, "I was punished for whispering—talking to another boy, because I had something I wanted to say to him. What barbarism! Why, if children want to talk, let them talk." Think of such a doctrine and let

your mind wander back to the classroom of your youth where the teacher's favorite expression was, "Now, I want all of you boys to be so quiet that I can hear a pin drop!" He went on to say: "Put them on their honor. Make them see with their own eyes and understand with their own brains what is best for them." (Is there any wonder that the Gary children enjoy their long school days and even crowd the school on holidays for voluntary work?)

In his "work-study-and-play" school, as the Gary system is called, Dr. Wirt makes use of all the educational and recreative agencies of the city. His argument is:

If you want to create a complete child world within the adult world, you must allow the children to be kept wholesomely busy at work, study, and play to make the right sort of men and women of them. School cannot do this alone. The parks, the libraries, the churches, the playgrounds must all work with the school to accomplish this desired end, and the school is best suited to coördinate these several agencies' work.

Besides the two experiments of the Gary plan being made in New York City, it is also being tested in Michigan and Illinois. When Troy, New York, had one of its school buildings destroyed by fire, Dr. Wirt was summoned to solve the plan of housing the dispossessed pupils. He accommodated these children in a building already occupied by another school, and although both schools were temporarily disturbed, they made the best records in the State Regents' examination at the end of the term.

The problem of school congestion is one that is constantly recurring, particularly in our large cities. Dr. Wirt achieves the ideal of a "seat for every pupil" by seating only a portion of the children at a time, the others meanwhile working in the shops, reading in the libraries, using the playgrounds, visiting the museums or menageries, or pursuing some other field of operations. The mooted religious instruction question is solved by giving each child an opportunity to attend a class for such instruction wherever the parents may decide. And the churches are gladly coöperating by furnishing facilities for such instruction, for many believe that this Gary plan is the best way to reach the twenty million boys and girls between five and twenty years of age who, it is estimated, do not attend Sunday schools.



DR. WILLIAM A. WIRT, FOUNDER OF THE GARY SCHOOL SYSTEM

While the Gary plan makes a longer working day for the teacher, it does away with home work, which consumes many of the teachers' evenings, as well as being a bugaboo to pupils and parents alike. Also under the Gary system, the teacher is allowed more initiative and independence. The fact that this system, which has been successful in Gary, a city of 35,000 population, is also being considered by New York with its 5,000,000—and, according to Mayor Mitchel, has already been successful in the two cases under trial, would seem to bear out Dr. Wirt's contention that the principle of the Gary plan can be applied anywhere and under the most widely differing conditions. The plan has many enthusiastic advocates. Parents as well as school authorities and city officials will be increasingly interested in following the progress of the Gary plan in the various places in which it is already in operation.

ZEPPELIN RAIDS AND THE RIGHTS OF NEUTRALS

BY AMOS S. HERSHEY

(Professor of Political Science and International Law, Indiana University)

[Every mail from England makes more vivid the Zeppelin peril, and confirms the importance of the topic discussed by Professor Hershey in the following article. Writing in London on September 10, Mr. Lewis R. Freeman, the author of the article on Lloyd George appearing on page 569 of this REVIEW, states that five Zeppelin bombs had fallen within 200 yards of his hotel window, and that he had walked three miles down the "swath" of the raid on broken glass. The press dispatches published in this country on October 14 stated that in another raid over London fifty-five persons had been killed by bombs and 114 injured.—THE EDITOR.]

MY daily newspaper for September 10, 1915, informs me that on the previous night the "heart of London" was raided by Zeppelin airships (the second raid within twenty-four hours). These "monsters of the air" are said to have dropped incendiary and explosive bombs in the center of the city, killing twelve men, two women, and thirteen children.

The dispatch states that "the German invaders flew over the northwest section of London, a rich residential district filled with palatial homes, and dropped bombs on the great docks in the southeastern quarter."

My paper also informs me that this disastrous raid was the twentieth made on England since the war's beginning. It brought the total casualties up to 123 killed and 349 wounded.

Fortunately, no Americans seem to have fallen victims in any of these raids, though there must be thousands of our countrymen and women domiciled or visiting in England at this season, more particularly in the heart of London and vicinity.

In view of possible eventualities, is it not time to consider some of the problems involved in this situation? Suppose Americans had been killed or injured, or suppose they should fall victims in future raids! Have our people considered their probable line of conduct in face of such a calamity or possible series of calamities? What action, if any, should our Government take in the premises? Is there a sound basis for the view frequently expressed that Americans penetrate into or remain on belligerent territory at their own risk?

In the case of the *Lusitania* and the other merchantmen torpedoed without warning by

German submarines, our rights are unquestionable and unimpeachable. The Americans and other non-combatants on these vessels were murdered while on board common carriers engaged in lawful voyages on the common highway of nations. The rights of these carriers are not absolute, however, for they are subject to the rights of belligerent visit and search and, under the exceptional circumstances in which Germany finds herself,—being unable to take her prizes to a safe port,—they are even subject to destruction, provided the ships' passengers, crews, and papers are saved.

RIGHTS OF NEUTRALS ON LAND

How far are travelers or tourists on the high seas entitled to equal or similar rights on land or on belligerent territory? Or, have they any rights whatsoever?

On the high seas they find themselves under the immediate jurisdiction of the commander of the vessel on which they sail, and they are subject to the laws of the country whose flag the ship flies and in which it is registered. But beyond this they still owe allegiance and obedience to their home government which in turn owes to them protection against an illegal or unjust encroachment upon their rights.

The situation of tourists or domiciled aliens on land or on belligerent territory is not dissimilar in these respects. They owe a temporary allegiance and obedience to the laws of the country in which they sojourn and, in return, are entitled to its protection. But they are still under the protection of their home government to which they owe a permanent allegiance and obedience.

Now, what are the rights of such tourists

or domiciled aliens in case of war or an invasion? They have all the rights of non-combatants, and must look to their home government for the protection of these rights in case the government of the country in which they temporarily reside is unable to protect them.

RULES REGULATING BOMBARDMENT

One of these rights is that of freedom from attack by way of bombardment in undefended places.

The rules of international law governing bombardment may be found in Articles 25-28 of the Hague Regulations on Land Warfare and in the Hague Convention on Naval Bombardment adopted in 1907:

The attack or bombardment, *by any means whatever*, of towns, villages, dwellings, or buildings which are *undefended*, is prohibited. (Article 27 of the Hague Regulations.)

The bombardment by naval forces of *undefended* ports, towns, villages, dwellings, or buildings, is forbidden. (Article 1 of the Hague Convention respecting Naval Bombardments.)

It will thus be seen that the bombardment of *undefended* ports, towns, etc., whether by land, air, or sea, is strictly prohibited.

Article 26 of the Hague Regulations provides that "the commander of an attacking force, before commencing a bombardment, *except in case of an assault*, should do all in his power to warn the authorities."

But the Convention on Naval Bombardments only provides for "due notice" in case of a refusal to comply with a demand for requisitions for provisions or necessary supplies or for a warning of the authorities if military exigencies permit. Since a warning may be dispensed with in case of an assault or surprise attack in land warfare or if "military exigencies" do not permit it in naval bombardment, manifestly it can hardly be deemed essential in case of bombardment from the air.

WHAT CONSTITUTES "DEFENSE"?

The most important question bearing on the rights of non-combatants in case of bombardment, whether by air, sea, or land, that can be asked is, "What is a defended place?"

On this all-important point the authorities are not agreed.

At one extreme we have the German or military school which justifies almost any means of war that is supposed to bring pressure, whether moral or material, upon even the civilian population of the enemy. According to this view, which is based upon a

now discredited "fear" psychology, the presence of a few soldiers, some barracks or guns would constitute a defended or occupied city, rendering its civilian population subject to bombardment without notice.

On the other hand, the great majority of non-German authorities on international law would probably agree with Calvo that bombardment "is an extreme measure only justifiable in case it is absolutely impossible to attain by any other means than the end aimed at, that is to say, the surrender of the point attacked and the expulsion or capture of enemy soldiers charged with its defense."

THE HAGUE INTERPRETATION

The most authoritative interpretation of the meaning of a "defended" place is contained in a statement made by General Den Beer Portugael, the Dutch expert delegate at the Hague Conference of 1907,—a statement which was officially accepted as a correct interpretation of the term:

What is a defended town?

In warfare on land there is no difficulty. An armed force is approaching a town. It may be fortified or open. Even if it is open, the entrance may be defended by temporary banks, barricades, and other earthworks. It goes without saying that the attacking force has a perfect right to bring its artillery to bear on such defenses and in such manner as it may consider most effective in order to obtain possession of the town. Nevertheless, it will concentrate its artillery against these defense works and against the enemy artillery and forces, but it will take care not to direct its shells *en pure perte* against the town itself, seeing that they might result in loss to the civil population. In so doing the true soldier respects the honorable traditions of his profession.

In maritime war the circumstances are less simple.

Suppose an enemy tried to land on the Dutch coast, for instance, at Scheveningen, which is practically a suburb of The Hague. The Dutch Government would send to the dunes of Scheveningen detachments of artillery, infantry, and cavalry to prevent the enemy's landing. Would this defense of the coast at Scheveningen justify the bombardment of the open city of The Hague? No, assuredly not. The enemy would certainly have a right to use its artillery against our artillery and other defenses of the coast, but it would not have the right to bombard the city under pretext that it is defended. To bombard it under such circumstances would be contrary to the law of nations, since it would be unnecessarily cruel. It would be worse than unnecessary. The destruction of the dwellings of peaceful civilians, the setting fire to its public buildings would not only help to overcome the forces which would have to be defeated in order to secure a landing, but it would stimulate their ardor in fighting against such unmitigated barbarism. *In short, a "defended" town means one that is itself directly defended.*

CERTAIN PARTS OF LONDON LIABLE TO
BOMBARDMENT

Should not this interpretation of the meaning of "defended," officially accepted by the Second Hague Conference, serve as a guide to us during the present war? There can, of course, be no question of the iniquity and utter lawlessness of the bombardment, whether from the sea, air, or land, of British watering places, open and undefended inland cities, towns or villages, or London suburbs, unless it be by way of reprisal,—an extremely doubtful right.

But how about such an aggregate of towns, counties, and parishes as the greater London itself?

It must be admitted that there are certain sections, quarters, or portions of London which are liable to aerial or naval bombardment even without notice.

The Hague Convention on Bombardment by Naval Forces admits by way of exception that its prohibition does not extend to "military works, military or naval establishments, depôts of arms or war material, warships or plants which might be utilized for the needs of the hostile army, and ships of war in the harbor."¹

It thus seems clear that the commander of aerial craft may without notice lawfully attack all military and naval establishments along the Thames or elsewhere in England; that he may attempt to destroy railway stations and junctions, bridges, telegraph or wireless stations which serve as a means of communication between enemy forces; and that he may destroy workshops or plants used for the manufacture of war material or equipment for the needs of the army or

navy.² "The commander incurs no responsibility for any danger which may be caused by a bombardment under such circumstances." (*Article 2 of the Convention on Naval Bombardment.*)

How about banks, public buildings, and railway stations, etc., used in ordinary traffic? Would these also be subject to bombardment, as appears to have been claimed by the German General Staff and Admiralty?

It is difficult to see how the destruction of such property, whether public or private, could serve a direct military purpose. This, after all, is the real test or justification of military operations, at least, in warfare on land.

THE AMERICAN ATTITUDE

This brings us back to the point of departure,—what should be the attitude or policy of our Government in case Americans are killed or injured in these senseless raids?

So far as we have a policy or mission in this war, it seems to be that of fearlessly maintaining our own rights as neutral non-combatants and incidentally upholding the fundamental principles of international law and humanity.

There can be no doubt that in case of injury to American citizens by reason of aerial bombardment in an undefended place, our Government, after carefully weighing the facts, should demand compensation and definite pledges or assurances for the future. Failing such assurances or agreement on principle, we should at the very least refuse to hold further converse with a government guilty of such actions.

¹ The Hague Convention referred to above also admits liability to bombardment in case of a refusal to comply with a formal summons to furnish requisitions for provisions or supplies necessary for immediate use, but for obvious reasons this exemption could scarcely be held to apply in aerial warfare.

² Whether the phrase "war material" includes provisions is a moot point. At The Hague Admiral Siegel proposed to insert the word "provisions," but withdrew the term when convinced that it was unnecessary. If this interpretation be admitted, it should be understood that it only includes stores of provisions destined for the hostile army or fleet.



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SEARCHLIGHTS AT CHARING CROSS, LONDON, ON THE LOOK-OUT FOR INVADING AIRCRAFT



THE GARDENS OF THE IMPERIAL PALACE IN KYOTO, WHERE THE CORONATION CEREMONIES WILL BE HELD

JAPAN AND THE CORONATION

BY MARTHA L. ROOT

[Miss Root, of Pittsburgh, has just completed a voyage around the world. While in Alexandria, soon after Turkey entered the war, she wrote of "The Jewish Flight from Palestine to Egypt,"—an article that appeared in the REVIEW for June. From Egypt, Miss Root went by way of the Suez Canal to India, the Straits Settlements, China, the Philippines, and Japan. The present article is the result of her observations while in Japan, where she was accorded very special facilities for obtaining information regarding the approaching coronation of the Emperor and Empress.—THE EDITOR.]

I—AN INTERVIEW WITH PREMIER OKUMA

UPON arriving in Japan, I became deeply conscious of the fact that here were the only Asiatic people having their own government, able to run it, and confident of their ability in that respect. More than that, Japan is ambitious to be the dominant power in Asia and to keep out the Western nations,—the "White Peril," as they sometimes refer to the matter,—or at least to minimize their influence. Even if one is out of sympathy with these ambitions, it is not proper to look upon Japan as a "black sheep," for at worst it is only practising what it has learned from the Western world about land- and money-grabbing.

The Chinese have become bitter toward Japan, and look upon America, more than ever before, as their strongest friend. We in this country can perhaps do more to-day toward helping them, in a friendly spirit, than any other people in the world. This is not said in criticism of Japan's motives and intentions.

I found the Japanese intensely interested in the negotiations with China, and decidedly wrought up over the cabinet crisis which followed. Count Okuma, the Premier, has many devoted and powerful adherents; but he has also many critics. It is claimed that he resigned merely to get rid of some un-



EMPEROR YOSHIHITO



EMPRESS SADAKO

desirable members of his cabinet, and that he knew the Emperor would request him to remain Premier.

A VIGOROUS PERSONALITY

I called upon Count Okuma at his home, and was received in a large living-room opening upon gardens on three sides. On the other side is his shrine, and the place of honor,—where he sat when I interviewed him,—is directly in front of the shrine. Although a man seventy-eight years of age, Count Okuma does not appear to be more than fifty-five. His physique is wonderful for his age, particularly when it is remembered that he has a wooden leg resulting from a bomb explosion. He practises fencing and Swedish gymnastics for an hour every morning, and is president of a society which advocates living to be 125 years old.

Next to statecraft, the Count's interests are educational. He founded Waseda University, upon part of his own estates,—an institution noted for its progressive tendencies, and somewhat less exclusive than the Imperial University.

When I approached, with my interpreter, Count Okuma introduced me to a number

of distinguished Japanese educators and editors as "the journalist from Ambassador Guthrie's city." The Count is a brilliant conversationalist, and the moment he became interested in his subject my interpreter, —whom I had supposed to be the best in Tokio,—passed me a note saying, "His thoughts are so lofty that I cannot interpret rapidly enough to give you his idea." Fortunately Mr. Nagai, editor of a leading Japanese journal and a professor in Waseda University, courteously offered to interpret.

AVOWED FRIENDLINESS FOR CHINA

Count Okuma stated that, in general, the recent negotiations between China and Japan were undertaken for the purpose of strengthening the peaceful relations of the two countries. But China construed the desire of Japan as just the opposite. "The sixty million people of Japan," declared the Premier, "have no other feeling toward China than good will. Neither a European nation nor rising Japan can conquer China. Therefore, the policy of an 'open door' and equal opportunity is best for the present."

In explaining to me the Japanese attitude toward China, Count Okuma said: "Our

country long ago became awakened by fear aroused by external trouble. We thereupon endeavored to harmonize Eastern civilization with that of the Occident. The result is our present status. If China learns her lesson from Japan, she will be safe. Our country has 'Japanized' Occidental civilization. We constantly send to foreign countries our scholars and experts to learn; yet Japan never adopts anything until she can transform it to meet her needs. A literal transfer of the laws and systems of France, England, or Germany would simply end in failure, because each has its own peculiarities. Japan and China, however, are somewhat

similar, except that Japan 'digests' while China 'swallows'!"

Count Okuma declared to me that the greatest need in the world to-day is spiritual education for the young men of Japan. "Not the dogmas of the Christians, nor the rituals of the Buddhists, but the pure teaching of Christ and the pure teaching of Buddha,"—that is his view.

Upon learning of my desire to describe and interpret the coronation for Americans, Count Okuma was extremely courteous and helpful, as were many other high officials in Japan. By virtue of his office, the Premier will himself play a very important part.

II—THE FORTHCOMING CORONATION

THE land of the cherry blossom and chrysanthemum will this month blaze with added splendor and radiance during the coronation ceremonies of His Majesty, Yoshihito, the one hundred and twenty-second Emperor of Japan. He had ascended the throne on July 30, 1912, upon the death of his father, Mutsuhito, and would have formally pronounced himself Emperor two years ago, at the expiration of the mourning period, but his mother's death brought the royal family again into bereavement.

The coronation ceremonies, which will attract attention throughout the entire world, are of deep significance to the people of Japan. The royal family is of the purest descent, the present dynasty being supposed to have been founded by the first Emperor. Yet the Japanese look upon their sovereign almost as one of their own number. As ruler, he has won the respect and esteem of his subjects, but far more significant is their simple devotion, amounting even to worship. One observer of this Land of the Rising Sun glimpsed the truth when he remarked, "The empire is one great family; the family is a little empire."

Emperor Yoshihito is thirty-six years old, and the Empress Sadako is five years younger. Their three children are boys, the eldest being fourteen.

The crowning is really a religious ceremony, based on Ancestor Worship, and it will be carried out almost exactly as was the custom nearly three thousand years ago. The occasion will not only commemorate the Emperor's Coronation, but it will also be a memorial day for all his ancestors. In Japan the sovereign is not crowned; he merely

ascends the throne, claps his hands, and declares his Supreme Command of the Empire.

Although Tokio is the present capital, all crownings must take place in beautiful old Kyoto, the home of all previous pageants. The place is so small that even noblemen are not invited, though they are entitled to be present. The palaces where the rites are to be solemnized were built in days when such large entertainments were unknown.

To understand the coronation the reader must remember that the Japanese base their government on Ancestor Worship. Their first ruler is believed to have been descended from a goddess, before the time of Christ. Each Emperor, upon ascending the throne, acquires the "Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors." These sacred emblems are a Sword (indicating command), a Jewel (representing mercy), and a Mirror (symbolizing the search for truth).

THE TRADITIONAL CEREMONIES

Opening rites for the coronation will be inaugurated in Tokio, in the Kashiko-Dokoro palace. "Kashiko-Dokoro" means sometimes the Mirror, which plays a part almost as important in the coronation ceremonies as the Emperor himself, and sometimes it means a building, a shrine for the spirits of dead Emperors. Their *bodies* rest in tombs, but their *spirits* are believed to be in these shrines. The palace will be gorgeously decorated.

On November 7, high officials of the coronation commission will take their seats in the assembly hall. When the door of the sanctuary is opened, ritual music will be played, and there will be a divine oblation.

Food consisting of rice, sake, fish, and other dried viands will be offered by ritualistic priests. After this service the sacred carriage will be brought to the palace, and the precious mirror will be placed in it and sent to Kyoto. The Emperor and Empress will follow.

On Coronation Day,—November 10,—there will be two ceremonies, in different palaces. In the morning the Emperor will worship his first imperial ancestor in Shinto style, in the Kashiko-Dokoro of Shunkoden palace. Representatives of all the provinces, including Korea and Formosa, will be present; also civil, military, and naval officers of higher rank, the nobility, and the diplomatic corps.

The Crown Prince and princesses will come in, escorting the Emperor and Empress to one of the halls. The Emperor will then retire, change his dress, and wash his hands. When he returns he takes the Imperial Sceptre. The Empress then retires, changes her kimonos, and washes. When she comes back she takes in her hand a white fan of cedar.

Drums and gongs will be heard three times, and the large general assembly of guests will rise. Sanctuary doors are then opened, ritual music is played, and while divine oblations are offered a chief ritualist will recite a prayer. The Emperor will leave his apartment and take his seat in the inner chamber of the sanctuary, the Sword and Jewel will be placed on the table in front of him. The Empress takes her place beside her husband.

ACCEPTING THE THRONE

The Emperor will rise, make obeisance, and read a prayer. Then he will tell his imperial ancestors that he accepts the throne. Clapping his hands, he accepts the "Divine Treasures of his Imperial Ancestors,"—the Sword, Jewel, and Mirror,—which have been bequeathed by the first imperial ancestor, Amaterasu Omi Kami, to her descendants as symbols of imperial power. After this the Emperor and Empress will retire, the sacred food will be removed, and the door of the sanctuary closed. Three times the gongs and drums will sound, and the assemblage will disperse.

The afternoon ceremony of Coronation Day will take place in the throne room of Shishinden palace, in Kyoto.

The throne room itself will be decorated with a short curtain hung under the southern eaves of the hall, and at each side of the

room will be a golden phoenix and several mirrors. In the center, facing the south, a dais with three steps has been erected, upon which the imperial chairs will stand.

The members of the royal household will take their places in front of the throne, and the Emperor will enter the throne room and take his seat. The Empress will follow to her place. The Emperor, holding the sceptre upright against his breast, will stand up. The Empress, holding her fan, also will rise. The assemblage then will rise and most respectfully salute. After the Emperor delivers a short imperial message, telling his subjects he accepts the throne, Prime Minister Okuma will read the congratulatory address. He will then give three "Banzai" cheers, in which all the assemblage will join. The Emperor and Empress will then depart, and the drums and gongs will be sounded three times as a signal that the coronation function is over.

THE GORGEOUS COSTUMES

Undoubtedly the most fascinating feature of the coronation is the attire of those participating. The Emperor and Empress have a number of marvelous costumes, which are to be changed in accordance with the varied ceremonies. Every functionary present also has his own robe of special design and coloring. Probably no European ceremonial has ever presented as much brilliancy and gorgeousness of costume, whether in design or color scheme, as the Japanese coronation that takes place from November 7th to the 29th.

I brought home with me a number of very large diagrams of these costumes, drawn and colored in the royal palace, and loaned to me. Four of these have been selected as typical, and from the large original drawings the illustrations on the opposite page have been directly reproduced. It is regretted that they cannot be printed in their brilliant and artistic colorings.

The Emperor's robe shown is the one he will wear at the afternoon ceremony on Coronation Day. It is of yellow silk, embroidered with kiri and "take" (a species of bamboo). His crown is made of black raw silk. In his hand is his sceptre. The Empress' dress is made of five silk kimonos, of different kinds, in color harmonies of lead, blue, and red. Premier Okuma and other high state officials will wear robes similar to the one shown, of black silk embroidered with a panel of many colors. Military officers' robes will have much gold, with a front of real armor exquisitely colored.



THE EMPEROR, AS HE WILL LOOK WHEN ACCEPTING THE THRONE



ONE OF THE EMPRESS' COSTUMES, MADE OF FIVE KIMONOS



CIVIL OFFICER'S ROBES



MILITARY OFFICER'S ROBES

SAMPLES OF THE COSTUMES DESIGNED FOR THE CORONATION

(A description of these gorgeous robes will be found on the opposite page)

IMMIGRATION, INDUSTRY, AND THE WAR

BY FREDERIC C. HOWE

Commissioner of Immigration at the Port of New York

SLOWLY but surely the war is closing the doors of the warring countries of Europe to the outgoing emigrant. The process began in August, 1914, with Germany, Austria, Hungary, Russia, France, and Belgium, from which countries emigration fell to negligible proportions during the first twelve months of war. The stream from Italy continued in somewhat diminished volume until that country entered the war. Then only Great Britain, Scandinavia, and Greece contributed to the incoming tide. Now with the entrance of the Balkan States into the war arena, emigration from the Mediterranean, which in recent years has been the source of most of our alien population, will come to an end.

For the four years from June 30, 1910, to June 30, 1914, the annual immigration to the United States averaged 1,033,283. It reached its height in 1913, when the total immigration was 1,197,892. In the latter year southern Europe, including Russia, Austria, and Hungary, contributed 868,690 immigrants, while northern Europe contributed 175,937. South European immigration is known as "new immigration," while that from Germany, Scandinavia, Great Britain, and the north of Europe is known as the "old immigration." The incoming tide in 1913 was made up as follows, only the countries from which substantial immigration comes being included:

OLD IMMIGRATION		NEW IMMIGRATION	
Belgium	7,405	Austria	137,245
Denmark	6,478	Hungary	117,580
France	9,675	Greece	22,817
Germany	34,229	Italy	265,542
Netherlands	6,902	Portugal	14,171
Norway	8,587	Russian Empire	291,040
Sweden	17,202	Spain	6,167
England	43,363	Turkey in Europe	14,128
Ireland	27,876		—
Scotland	14,220		—

Total
598

175,937

Total

868,690

DECLINE IN IMMIGRATION

During the year ending June 30, 1915, coincident with the first year of the war, immigration fell to 434,244, or 32.3 per cent. of the immigration for the preceding year. During the twelve months from August 1, 1914, to July 31, 1915, immigration gradually slackened and fell to an average of 32,444 per month, and the decline still continues. In July, 1915, only 21,504 were admitted, as compared with 60,777 for July, 1914, a decline of 64 4/10 per cent. The decline for June, 1915, over June of the previous year, was 68 4/10 per cent.

For the present at least the European war has solved the immigration problem. At least it has solved it in so far as the restrictionist is concerned. And now the question is being widely discussed as to what will happen after the war; as to the source from which the immigration will come; as to the sex and character and physical condition of the immigration that comes to us. Are we in danger of inundation by the weak and helpless; by widows, children, and dependent ones; will our immigration officials be confronted with those weakened by disease, exposure and wounds? Will the restless and discontented come to us because of a disinclination to return to the dreary life of the peasant and the worker; will the burdens of taxation crush the warring nations and make the burden of life so heavy that men will flee their native land to escape its consequences? Will all Europe so hate militarism that the people will seek a land of peace and freedom from its horrors, or will economic and social conditions, the vacuum in the labor market, the work of reconstruction, of rehabilitation, so increase wages that opportunity will keep the worker at home? Finally, will the nations forbid emigration of the able-bodied man as a measure of self-protection?

These and similar questions are being asked by those who would restrict immigration on the one hand, and those who desire

it for industrial, racial, and sympathetic reasons on the other. Within the past few months employers of labor have asked the question with evidence of concern.

No definite answer can be given to these questions. There are too many confusing influences at work. And the currents may be confused. They may even run back and forth. Any reliable conjecture as to able-bodied men, however, must be predicated upon one controlling fact; and that fact is that emigration to America and emigration out of America will be controlled by economic conditions in the future as they have been in the past. They will be controlled by economic conditions on both sides of the Atlantic. From the very beginning America has been peopled by those seeking to better their economic condition. This has been the driving force from Colonial times. The lure of free land in the early days, of higher wages and greater opportunities in more recent years, has called the immigrant from England and Russia, from Scandinavia and Italy, from Germany and the Balkans. And the economic conditions in America on the one hand, and the economic conditions in Europe on the other in the years that follow the war will be the predominant influences in answering this question.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS IN AMERICA

There is every reason to believe that America is at the beginning of a period of great industrial prosperity. Everything suggests this. Successive years of bumper crops have enriched the farmers; hundreds of millions of war orders have set the mills and factories in motion; rising wages have increased the purchasing power of the workers; while the surplus of gold and bank deposits, together with the new currency act, should not only stabilize credit but cheapen it as well. Already there are suggestions of a shortage in the labor market. Skilled mechanics are at a premium. The almost immediate success of strikes in the great industrial centers is an indication of the strength of organized labor on the one hand, and the relative weakness of the employer on the other hand. The unemployment crisis of a year ago has come to an end. And the winter of 1915-16 gives promise of offering work for anyone who will accept it.

If this analysis of American conditions is correct, the economic suction which always precedes periods of heavy immigration will tend to attract the European to America; for a study of immigration tables shows that

immigration mirrors with great accuracy economic conditions in this country. In hard times it falls off immediately; while hundreds of thousands of workers, especially from the South of Europe, go back to their native land to await the call of friends or relatives in this country to return and take up their work again.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS IN EUROPE

Prospective conditions in Europe are far more difficult of analysis. One thing only is certain, and that is the terrible toll of young and able-bodied men that the war has exacted. It is probable that the first year's tribute to modern warfare in killed and wounded amounts to from 3,000,000 to 5,000,000. And these were the young, the energetic, and the capable. It is possible that the next twelve months will be a period of even greater slaughter. All of the warring nations are entrenched; they have dug themselves into their battlements. Engines of war have been perfected. New kinds of death-dealing instruments have been rushed to the front. An assault under existing conditions means wholesale murder. This is true on every front. And the most sacrificial kinds of attack must be made and failure by one side or the other must be apparent before suggestions of peace will be considered. It is possible that the death toll of the war will be doubled, possibly trebled during the next twelve months.

The destruction of wealth has been equally colossal. Belgium, the north of France, Poland, Silesia, western Russia, Serbia and Turkey have been over-run with contending armies. Houses and buildings have been destroyed; the highways are in need of reconstruction; all growing things have been requisitioned; horses and cattle have been taken by the governments. In addition to this millions of people have been made bankrupt; they have lost all that they possessed; and with it the hope and inspiration which identified them with home.

The trade of Germany, Austria, and Russia has been shut out from the markets of the world. Mills and factories have been converted into munition plants. Millions of men have been diverted from their customary pursuits.

After the war all Europe will turn with feverish eagerness to repair its ravages; to regain lost markets; to re-open highways; to re-stock and re-equip the farms. There will be a shortage of men on the one hand, and an unparalleled demand for labor on the

other. Such a condition has not confronted Europe since the beginning of the industrial revolution. Probably no such condition ever confronted the world.

A labor vacuum will be the great outstanding fact at the close of the war. And a labor vacuum has always resulted in an increase in wages. This has been true no matter how well intrenched the employing class might be. Criminal statutes do not prevent labor organization; they cannot prevent an increase in wages. Even a small labor shortage results in a rise in wages and a sense of power on the part of the worker. All Europe will probably compete for able-bodied men. Economic conditions may improve so rapidly that despite the financial burdens of the war the European will choose to remain at home. Many here may be glad to return. For a large percentage, possibly a majority, of those who have come to us in recent years have come with a lingering expectation of ultimately returning to their native land. Hundreds of thousands leave America each year to return to their native villages, there to acquire a small holding, to open a shop, or live upon their accumulations in relative ease and comfort. And with the better economic conditions at home it is reasonable to suppose that the peasant and the worker will prefer to remain with his own rather than to venture into a new and untried land.

THE RETURNING ALIEN

In 1913, 248,559 returned home, in 1914, 257,295. Of those returning, by far the greater number went to Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. They were the unskilled laborers of the railroads and construction work, of the iron and steel mills of Pittsburgh, Cleveland, and Chicago. This indicates the mobility of the immigrant. It suggests the volume of workers who may return when the war is over.

But the ability of Europe to provide work depends upon the efficiency with which Europe is organized to repair its wasted fortunes after the war. Colossal sums will be needed to start the wheels of industry; to plant the crops; to re-stock the farms. Outside of Germany, however, none of the warring countries have any experience in credit operations of the sort demanded. And the rebuilding of Europe will depend upon a new kind of financing, a financing in many ways more difficult than that required for war. There will be little patriotic response to a peace loan when each individual needs every

cent that he possesses to rebuild his own fortunes. And without such credit resources it will be impossible for industry to revive or the peasant in the field to maintain his existence until nature brings forth a new crop for his necessities.

POSSIBLE EMIGRATION FROM AMERICA

These and other forces may stop immigration to America. They may lead to substantial emigration from America. There are 13,000,000 foreign-born within our midst, and 18,000,000 more who are the immediate descendants of foreign-born parents. One-third of our population is separated from the land of its birth by but a few years. And a large part of those of foreign birth, possibly the majority, are of the unskilled workers from the south of Europe.

The outgoing emigration under normal industrial conditions is from 200,000 to 300,000 a year. It may rise to double that number if industrial conditions in Europe improve. Then America may be confronted with a labor vacuum; then we may find difficulty in building railroads, in manning our mills and factories, in harvesting the crops. The war may, and in my opinion will, react upon America in this way. Continued expanding prosperity in this country, the great falling off in immigration during the past two years, and the exodus of foreign-born after the war may create a situation in which American industry will be confronted with a condition it has never faced before. There may be more jobs than men. Unemployment may come to an end in America as in Europe. And the quickness with which organized labor has sensed its power during the last few months suggests that under such circumstances the condition of labor would rapidly improve. Wages will rise, and they may rise far above the present level.

HIGHER WAGES INDICATED

The effect of rising wages and a labor shortage is a matter of speculation, for it is a new thing to the world. If continued long enough it may reverse the position of employer and employee. It may enable the latter to control the terms and conditions of employment. It may even extend to politics. We do not know what a fully employed, highly paid, leisure-possessing working class will do with its sense of power. It will not need to strike to secure higher wages. Higher wages will be granted more or less automatically. The search for men will of itself

change the psychology of both employer and employee. And hours of labor are already being reduced to eight and nine hours, where formerly they were nine and ten, and even more.

High wages for men means fewer women and children in industry. This means more work for men. It means a demand for education, for comforts and luxuries by a new class heretofore denied them.

History shows, too, that industrial classes which rise to economic power demand political power as well. This is undoubtedly true of the commercial classes. As to whether there is so wide a gulf between the commercial and working classes that the same causes will not operate as to the latter, we have no means of knowing.

High wages means that the workers have more money to spend for food and clothes, house rent, and the comforts and amenities of life. If continued for any length of time high purchasing power means prosperity for the manufacturing and business classes; such a prosperity in fact as they have never enjoyed. This, too, means greater demand for labor, which in turn means higher wages.

PROBABLE SCARCITY OF FARM LABOR: LOWER RENTS

Some classes will probably suffer in such a readjustment. The farmer will find difficulty in securing seasonal labor. And whatever the ultimate results of a labor shortage, this undoubtedly will occur. The farmer finds difficulty now. And if labor is fully employed he may find it impossible to work his farm, especially in the far West. Domestic servants will be hard to obtain, unless the surplusage of women in Europe overflows into America, as is quite likely to happen.

If farm labor is scarce and population diminishes or remains stationary in the cities, land values may go down, for they are maintained at the present high level by the speculative expectation of a growing demand for land which springs from increase in population. And even agricultural land has increased very rapidly in value in recent years. Urban rents, too, may fall for the same reason. This is possible especially in cities like New York, Chicago, Boston, Pittsburgh, and Cleveland; in which cities nearly three-quarters of the population is either foreign-born or of immediate foreign extraction. Falling rents, and a diminishing population, will improve housing conditions. It will compel landlords to build better houses, to improve sanitation, to lower rents, which

will be a still further advantage to the producing classes.

All this is, of course, a matter of speculation. But we can assume as a truism that increased demand for labor and a diminished supply of labor means increasing wages, a higher standard of living, and a change in the relative strength of the employer and the employed. The change may in fact be so rapid as to be a revolution; it may affect Europe and America like the discovery of a new continent. It may mean that for years to come there will be an end of the over-supply of labor, which is most largely responsible for the low standard of wages, especially in the unskilled trades.

WIDER DISTRIBUTION OF LAND OWNERSHIP

There is yet another cause which may operate to stimulate emigration from the United States to Europe and still further intensify the labor shortage. The war has killed and disabled a large percentage of the land-owning nobles of East Prussia, Poland, Silesia, Russia, Austria, and Central Europe. It has bankrupted many more. Their estates have been devastated. It will be difficult for them to reestablish their old standard of living. It will be further difficult to secure peasants to work the land. This may result in the division of the great feudal estates into peasant farms, as was done in France after the French Revolution; as was done in South Germany by Stein and Hardenberg; as has more recently been done in Denmark. The same thing may happen in Great Britain.

Other influences may lead to the same result. The economic power of France in the present struggle is recognized as largely due to the wide distribution of land ownership. It is this that has made France the rich country that she is. It has also stimulated patriotism and checked emigration. The revolutionary movements in Russia are motivated in part by the bad system of land tenure, as well as the operations of the land-owning nobles.

Central Europeans, even under existing conditions, return to their native country in large numbers. They go back to Russia, Poland, Austria, and Hungary. And if the land in these countries is broken up into small holdings and is made available for purchase on easy terms, it is probable that many Europeans will return to their native lands for the purpose of taking advantage of the opportunity. This will further tend to reduce the labor supply in this country, and at the same time contribute greatly to the

economic up-building of Europe because of the substantial sums which returning foreigners carry back to their native land.

INFLUENCES TENDING TO KEEP UP EMIGRATION

This is one answer to the effect of the war upon immigration. But there is another possibility. Twenty million men have been divorced from their homes. Old ties have been broken. Many men have acquired a restless discontent with the drudgery of labor. Will they return to the mill and the factory, to their old position of servitude under quasi-feudal conditions in Austria, Germany, and Central Europe? Or will they drift about and seek new experiences in newer lands? Undoubtedly, out of the millions of men enrolled in the war many will have acquired a new sense of freedom and will emigrate to other parts of the globe. Others, too, will flee Europe to escape the burdens of taxation; to avoid militarism and the dreary work of reconstruction which confronts them. From these combined sources substantial immigration may be expected unless the countries of Europe close their doors to emigration, or economic conditions keep the people at home.

What about the women and children? There will be millions of widows and orphans left destitute by the war. Many of them have friends and relatives in the United

States who will extend a helping hand and a cordial welcome to America. They will be assisted to emigrate, for even under ordinary circumstances probably 80 per cent. of those who come to us are assisted by friends or relatives in this country. This is especially true of the Jews, who have suffered most by the war. And no race is so well organized for the aid and assistance of their people as are the Jews of America. Undoubtedly a substantial Jewish immigration may be expected from Poland, Russia, and Austria-Hungary.

In conclusion, it seems to me probable that immigration of the able-bodied will not resume its former proportions for many years if the countries of Europe meet the situation by organizing their finances and administrations to rehabilitate industry and agriculture. There will be little emigration from Germany, France, and Belgium under any circumstances, for these countries have contributed but little to our ethnic composite in recent years. There may in fact be a reversal of the tide. Population may flow from the United States to Europe, and in any event, there is likely to be such a change in the position of labor that wages will rise not only in Europe but in the United States as well. Wages may rise so rapidly and to such a point as to revolutionize not only the industrial but the political status of labor even in the autocratic countries of Europe.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

ITALIAN RESERVISTS LEAVING AMERICA TO JOIN THE COLORS

AN OGDEN MEMORIAL

IF Robert C. Ogden had lived until the 20th of next June, he would have been eighty years old. He would have continued to give unfailing effort to the solving of the problems of American civilization through the right kind of agencies for the training of young people of all races and classes. After a lifetime of remarkable usefulness,—during which he showed what a plain business man can do to serve his fellow men, and win their love and gratitude,—he died in August, 1913. It is determined by many who were associated with him in his good work that there shall be a fitting and lasting memorial erected to his memory. And there is entire agreement as to the form of this monument.

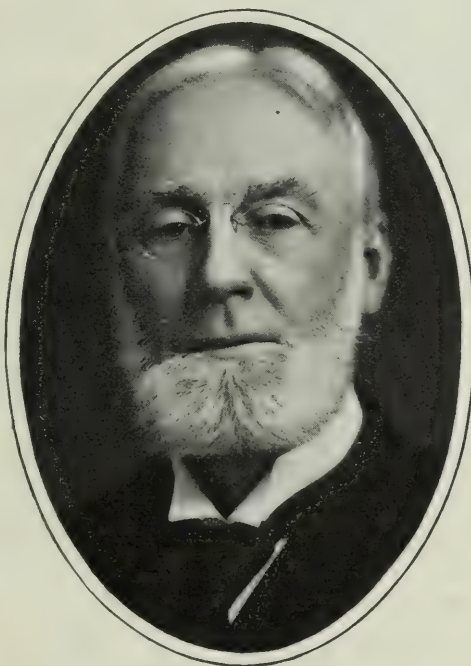
For forty years Mr. Ogden was chairman of the board of trustees of the famous institute at Hampton, Va. Many years ago he built a home there, looking forward to spending much time on the Hampton Roads if he should ultimately gain release from the cares of a great mercantile establishment in New York City. It is at Hampton, therefore, that all those who were concerned with Mr. Ogden and his activities are agreed that the memorial should be built. It will not be an obelisk or a mausoleum, but a thing for constant use,—namely, a much-needed Auditorium on the grounds of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.

It is to be wished that the eightieth anniversary of Mr. Ogden's birth might be celebrated, next June, in this new auditorium. That, indeed, may not be quite feasible. Yet Mr. Ogden himself,—if under like circumstances he had been projecting a

memorial in honor of his lifelong friend, General Armstrong, who founded the Hampton Institute,—might have overcome all obstacles and erected such a building in half a year. The Hon. William Howard Taft is now at the head of the Hampton Board of Trustees, and he is chairman of a large committee that is formed to aid and support the proposed plan of an Ogden Memorial. Doubtless the speed with which the building is begun and completed will depend much upon the promptness with which those who would wish to help in this project send in their subscriptions. The total sum asked

for is a hundred thousand dollars.

Those who have visited Hampton will know the need of an Auditorium. Our illustration, made from a preliminary drawing by the architects, Messrs. Ludlow and Peabody, shows how the new building is to be placed. On the left in the picture is the old familiar Cleveland Hall with which the new building is to be connected by an arcade. The giving up of the present auditorium in Cleveland Hall will release space greatly needed for extension of dining facilities and other practical purposes. At the extreme right of the picture is shown a corner of the



THE LATE ROBERT CURTIS OGDEN

memorial library built by Mrs. Huntington in memory of her husband. The proposed Auditorium will seat an audience of two thousand, besides having a very large platform or stage suitable for dramatic purposes, large choruses, or bodies of commencement visitors. There will be an ample entrance lobby in which portraits and tablets may be placed from time to time.



ARCHITECT'S SKETCH OF THE PROPOSED OGDEN MEMORIAL AUDITORIUM
(Showing existing Hampton buildings on the right and left)

Robert C. Ogden was the typical American man of business, who loved his country and his fellow men, and gave constantly of his money and his personal effort for good things. Although he belonged, with his father before him, to New York City's trade life, he had known the South as a very young business man before the war. Like Mr. Wanamaker, with whom he was for so long a time associated, he was interested, during the war time, even more in hospital and sanitary work and humane relief than in military action, although he was a member of a New York regiment. He became acquainted with Samuel C. Armstrong when both were little more than of voting age. Armstrong left college to enter the war, was made an officer of colored troops, had charge of refugees who gathered at Old Point Comfort, and evolved the Hampton Institute out of the temporary work of the Freedmen's bureau, the school dating from 1868.

After a very few years, Ogden became one of Armstrong's trustees (in about 1873), serving on the board for forty years, during the last twenty of which he was its chairman. Hollis B. Frissell, a young minister just beginning pastoral work, was in 1880 taken to Hampton by General Armstrong as chaplain and general assistant and associate. On Armstrong's death, in 1893, Dr. Frissell succeeded him as principal of the institution. Thus Frissell has now served Hampton for thirty-five years, still holding his place as a tower of strength in the American educational world. What Armstrong's brilliant mind conceived and his impulsive energy

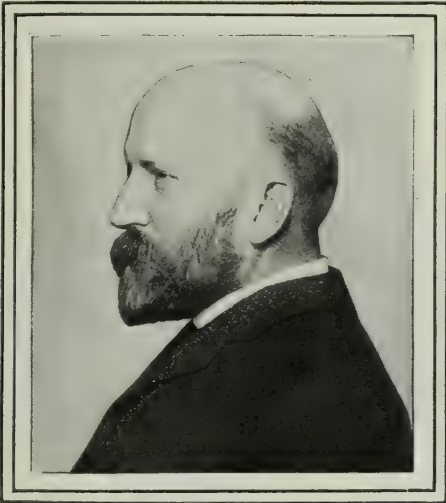
created, Frissell has carried on with tireless devotion, clear intelligence, and a modesty not inconsistent with firmness and efficiency. Always at his right hand stood Robert C. Ogden as counselor, friend and indefatigable worker for Hampton itself and for all the things that Hampton represented.

These men saw the need of providing teachers for the colored race. They worked out a scheme of agricultural and industrial education that was intended to meet the needs of plain people whose progress had got to be "from the ground up." Far from proposing to aid negroes and Indians in disregard of the crying educational needs of the whites of the South, no men were more ardent advocates of every possible measure of educational progress for the young people of their own white race than were Armstrong, Ogden, Frissell, and all their associates. Mr. Ogden and Dr. Frissell in due time gave such convincing proof of this broader interest of theirs that it came to pass that the set of men who best understood them and their work were the Southern leaders of educational and social progress.

When the great campaigns for abolishing illiteracy in the South, and for making education the chief task of local statesmanship, were entered upon, at the beginning of the present century, it was Mr. Ogden who was chosen to be life chairman of the annual Conferences for Education in the South; and it was he who held until his death the post of chairman of the Southern Education Board. It would be needless to name the great men of the South,—like the late Dr.

J. L. M. Curry of Virginia, the late Chancellor Hill of Georgia, the late Dr. McIver of North Carolina,—who were associated with Mr. Ogden in these movements and who knew him and loved him. Fortunately, a great majority of them are still living and carrying on those educational reforms, in their respective States, which have within the last fifteen years reduced the illiteracy of white young people between the ages of ten and twenty, in the Southern States, by considerably more than half.

When the General Education Board was founded, in 1902, to administer great gifts bestowed by Mr. Rockefeller, the work of the Southern Board was recognized as of rare value; so that Mr. Ogden and a number of his colleagues were selected by Mr. Rockefeller as charter members of the new board. Thus fresh power and efficiency were given to many educational undertakings. Through close intimacy of membership, the Southern Board, the General Board, the Peabody Board, the Slater Fund Board, and several other important agencies, worked in



DR. HOLLIS B. FRISSELL
(Principal of the Hampton Institute)

harmony and without any loss through duplicated or competitive effort. In all these things Mr. Ogden's fine spirit and noble personality were ever present and fully recognized.

No one would wish to claim for any man a larger measure of credit for progress of this kind than was his due. It is enough to say for Mr. Ogden that he saw what was needed; offered himself and all that he possessed to serve the cause of Southern educa-



A SNAPSHOT OF MR. R. C. OGDEN WITH HIS GRAND-DAUGHTER, TAKEN ON THE GROUNDS AT HAMPTON

tion; regarded himself as the minister and servant of all and least worthy among the brilliant orators, scholars, and administrators who surrounded him. But all these men perceived in Ogden great gifts and talents that were needed. He knew how to bring men together. He promoted good understandings between Northern and Southern leaders. He brought earnest and sincere men of the North into the Southern States, and opened their eyes to the larger needs of the nation. He made the North acquainted with the progressive educational apostles and orators of the South.

He took Southern State, City, and County school superintendents to see the working of school systems in the Middle West and elsewhere. How remarkably Mr. Ogden's efforts were ramified, and how helpfully they promoted a hundred projects of educational development with which he was not directly connected was set forth most convincingly by the Hon. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, in an address on Mr. Ogden and his work delivered last year at the Louisville, Ky., session of the

Conference for Education in the South. No one knew better than Dr. Claxton how useful Mr. Ogden's life work had been. Another high official of the Government, Dr. Houston, Secretary of Agriculture, was long associated with Mr. Ogden on the Southern Board, as was Mr. Page, now Ambassador at London, and Mr. George Foster Peabody, of the New York Federal Reserve Bank and many other public activities.

Mr. Ogden's sympathies and philanthropies were not confined to the movements for the education of both races in the South and the Indians of the West. But it is in the southern half of the country that his influence was most profoundly exerted. Business men and merchants will wish to help establish a memorial to one of their own number who so well sustained the usefulness and dignity of mercantile pursuits. Many Indians and many negroes will wish to give of their honest savings to show grateful appreciation of a man whose heart went out wherever simple, plain human beings needed guidance and help, and whose faith in the progress of humanity was not confined to a single race.

White leaders in all Southern States will wish to have some part in the Ogden Memorial, to show that they on their side are not narrow-visioned, and that they not only ap-

prove of the life and work of Robert C. Ogden, but also believe in the remarkable demonstration in industrial and practical training that has been made at Hampton,—a demonstration that has done much to influence educational methods in many countries. The Hampton work, indeed, is only beginning.

Those who wish to have some part in this good enterprise can easily communicate with Hampton Institute, with Principal Frissell, or with the Hon. William Howard Taft as the chairman of the committee. The problems that are still to be dealt with at Hampton are among the most important that must face the world within the half-century to follow the ending of the present colossal war of nations and of races. Hampton Institute will be fifty years old in 1918. The platform of the Ogden Memorial Auditorium is destined to be occupied sooner or later, in the coming half-century, by almost every Southern and Northern leader of public opinion.

Let us help, then, to make this Auditorium an early reality. The funds are already subscribed to a considerable extent. The editor of this REVIEW, who is also a member of the committee, will be glad to act for any donor who may find it convenient to use this office for so worthy a cause.

ALBERT SHAW.



A SNAPSHOT OF ONE OF THE FAMOUS "OGDEN PARTY" TRAINS

(For a number of years Mr. Ogden, at his own expense, each spring chartered a train of Pullman cars and took well-known people as his guests, both Northerners and Southerners, to attend the Southern Education Conference and to visit various educational institutions in the South, always including the Hampton Institute)

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

NON-PARTISANSHIP IN STATE ELECTIONS

LAST month the people of California were called upon to vote on bills providing for the nomination of candidates for State and local offices without party designation. Governor Johnson, in a notable speech at Los Angeles a few weeks ago, outlined the history of the movement for non-partisan elections in that State and set forth, with great force and clarity, the arguments for putting all State and local offices on a non-partisan basis.

The condition that Governor Johnson describes as having existed in California until about twenty years ago has been common to every State in the Union, and even to-day prevails in not a few. He says that every official,—township, city, county, and State,—was elected on a party ticket. The voters were invariably told that in order to uphold the national administration it was necessary to retain John Smith as city clerk of Bunkville. When, in the course of time, it began to be seen that such methods in the choice of local officials were not resulting in efficient local service, one of the California cities adopted a charter whereby its officials were selected without respect to parties. Others followed the example, until to-day every city in the State of California elects its officials without regard to politics or party.

Those who favored this policy in the beginning were told that if a party organization in the nation were to be continued there must be party organization in the State, which in turn can only be maintained by party organization in the county, township, and city, but the Californians first broke up the party organization in the smallest unit, and then extended non-partisanship to the larger units. Judges are now elected in the State without party designation, as well as school officials, local and State, and for the past two years all officials of all kinds in counties have been elected in non-partisan fashion. More than 2300 officials, county and



GOVERNOR HIRAM JOHNSON OF CALIFORNIA, ENTHUSIASTIC ADVOCATE OF NON-PARTISANSHIP IN STATE AND LOCAL ELECTIONS

State, have been made non-partisan by law, and, in addition, thousands of township and city officials. The purpose of this fall's campaign was to make the other State offices, in addition to the legislature, non-partisan.

Three great governmental principles now operating in California are defined by Governor Johnson as follows:

That the servants of the State shall be selected in their initial candidates by the people of the State, and in practise the party lines are in a degree obliterated in this initial selection; secondly, that public servants must give an undivided allegiance unto the State; and, thirdly, that all the subordinate public servants shall be se-

lected without test of politics or partisanship, but under Civil Service, upon merit alone.

There is nothing in these State laws that interferes in any way with party organization in national affairs, and it is Governor Johnson's contention that only in national affairs has party organization any place.

The State is a great business corporation, in which all of you are stockholders. It is carried on successfully or the reverse as its business policy shall be good or shall be bad. Within its government there is no national issue to be decided. The State deals not in tariff nor in war nor in international affairs nor in any of the matters that concern the national administration. Its government is distinct and separate, expressly made so under the Constitution, and its policies are local in character.

This is not a mere matter of theory. Governor Johnson reviews the past five years of achievement in California and ungrudgingly credits men and women of all political antecedents for what has been done:

Every work that has been done in this State for the past five years, every advance that has been made, every bit of human legislation, all of the accomplishments, have been, not because of

one party or one man, but have been the result of the unselfish and patriotic devoted effort of men and women of all political faiths and all political parties.

The one object of non-partisanship in State, city, town, or county is efficiency:

What we seek by the non-partisan laws is efficiency in government. No scheme devised by man can bring the political millennium. We hope by a comprehensive plan, where all else will be forgotten except the State and its service, to bring to the commonwealth in its servants a singleness of purpose and a higher patriotism. The State, after all, is the people's big business. Its manager should be selected because of his merit and ability, not because he belongs to a particular political party. The issue presented in these measures is partisanship or patriotism,—service to party or to people. Without partisanship whole-hearted undivided service can be rendered by a public official; with partisanship he divides his service. Blind partisanship has ever been the hope and the refuge of the unworthy politically.

These words are significant as expressing the convictions of a Governor who, one year ago, was reelected to office by the largest plurality ever given a candidate in his State.

COMPULSORY MILITARY SERVICE

IN the current discussion of compulsory military service in the United States, it is clear that a very large group of Americans base objections to the proposed system on the known and alleged evils of militarism, assuming that the one is inseparable from the other, while another large class of opponents argues that compulsory service could not be established in this country without interfering seriously with American economic life. As an answer to both these groups of objectors, Mr. George M. Tricoche, who formerly served as an artillery officer in the French army, contributes an article to the current number of the *Yale Review*.

ETHICAL VALUE OF MILITARY TRAINING

The purpose of his exposition of the proposed system of compulsory service is not so much to point out the value of such a service for the national defense, as to examine it as a moral force, or character-builder. His argument is that the qualities in which the American youth of to-day is notably deficient can best be developed by military discipline, and that this discipline can only be obtained by compulsory service. As proof that such service can no longer be said to be repellent to the Anglo-Saxon

mind, he cites the fact it has been adopted by Australia, an English colony, while it was seriously considered even before the present war by England herself. He refers also to the growing demand, from the heads of business concerns and public institutions, for ex-soldiers and graduates of military academies. For example, electricians and other specialists in the coast artillery are eagerly sought for by electric and other public-utility companies, because they are considered to be better disciplined morally, other things being equal, than the average civilian. It is not unusual in the Middle West to see the best-paid and most responsible positions held by graduates of military schools. Dr. Lyman Abbott is on record as having said: "Though I am a member of nearly every peace society in America, I am rapidly reaching a conclusion that a system of compulsory service for a limited term would be of incalculable benefit to the young men of America and to the country as a whole."

Mr. Tricoche is far from advocating an order of things in which preparation for war seems to be the chief object of human activity, in which the military note predominates. If such an organization were necessary to

improve the manners and character of the American youth, he would regard the remedy as far worse than the disease. But in his opinion young men might be taught self-control, tidiness, respect for lawful authority, and all that is meant by "discipline" without spending years in the barracks or at military drill.

He contends, on the other hand, that there is no substitute for real army service, even if such service does not exceed a few months of actual presence under the colors. Nothing, in his opinion, can take the place of regular army training. Compulsory drill in schools should be an adjunct to, but not a substitute for, regular compulsory service. In this country the schools that give the best results, from the point of view of character training, are the private academies and State institutions that have voluntarily adopted a military organization and where students are constantly in uniform and under military discipline. A certain amount of military training in the grammar or high school is desirable, and might be given to boys and girls alike by the regular teachers.

DEMAND FOR LONGER SERVICE AT EARLIER AGE THAN IN SWITZERLAND

In determining along what lines compulsory service should be organized in the United States, this writer is not content simply to copy the Swiss system, which compels all able-bodied men to attend a recruit school for from forty to sixty days according to the arm of service, and for several years afterwards to follow a sort of post-graduate course of eleven to fourteen days annually. While this short term of service suffices in Switzerland, because many generations have been trained in this way, Mr. Tricoche thinks that not much moral benefit could be expected in the United States from so short a training, at least in the beginning. He would recommend, first, a First Instruction Period of six months; and, second, two Revision Periods of two weeks each. In the cavalry and artillery men should attend three Revision Periods; but they would be discharged from the service one year sooner than the men of other branches of the army.

So far as age is concerned, we should have to depart from the rules generally admitted in Europe, since in this country young men enter business at an early age and should not be handicapped by their military duties. They should, therefore, attend a recruit school as soon as practicable after leaving the public school, and since we have so large

a male population, it would be useless to keep our men for many years under the colors. We should aim at an early training as recruits and an early discharge from military duty, and this course, in Mr. Tricoche's opinion, would be consistent with the requirement as to moral training. The age at which men are liable for service might be fixed as between eighteen and twenty-five in the active army; between twenty-six and thirty in the reserve (cavalry and artillery, twenty-six to twenty-nine). At the age of thirty (twenty-nine in cavalry and artillery) all men would receive their discharge. After this age they would not be mobilized, except in case of extreme necessity and by special act of Congress. Once every year for one day all active army men, except when in actual service, either in the First Instruction Period or the Revision Period, and all Reservists, would be summoned for inspection and revision of records.

THE LIGHTEST COMPULSORY SERVICE IN THE WORLD

On the basis of a population of 94,000,000, the war strength of the United States, according to the French or Swiss length of service would be over 7,000,000. According to the system proposed by Mr. Tricoche it would be between four and five millions. It would still be undoubtedly the lightest compulsory service in the world, and on account of the abundance of men there might be liberal exemptions from war service.

As to the objection on the score of expense and increase in taxes, the advocates of compulsory service reply that the only permanent forces, in addition to the General Staff, and the officer instructors (about 5000 in all), would be the colonial garrisons, including in round numbers 17,000 men. Instead of receiving the pay and pensions previously established for the regular army, the men would receive "militia pay" on a much reduced scale. A nominal wage of five cents a day might be regarded as sufficient for privates who, during their six months' service, would be clothed, fed, housed, and receive medical attendance free, besides having the benefits of military training. Estimating the number of recruits called to the colors each year at 300,000, it would cost much less to pay these recruits for six months than to pay 70,000 privates of the present United States Army for one year. It is not contended, however, that the new organization would be less expensive than the present.

COTTON AS CONTRABAND

SHORTLY before the outbreak of hostilities in August, 1914, cotton was selling in this country for 11 cents and upward per pound. By October of the same year the price had gone down to 6 cents. Not since the violent dethronement of Old King Cotton in the days of the Southern Confederacy had his majesty suffered such a fall. More recently still, the action of the British Government in denouncing cotton as contraband of war has roused an acute public interest in the reason for the fluctuations in value of this staple commodity.

The reason for the embargo upon cotton made by the Allies rests, of course, upon the fact that it is an important constituent of guncotton; hence the hope that deprivation of this element would seriously hamper the forces of Germany, by shortening their supplies of ammunition.

This aspect of the matter, with kindred topics, is discussed in the latter portion of an article in *Le Correspondant* (Paris), of September 10. The writer opines that the embargo will have as one result the complete ruin of the great and growing cotton industry in Germany. That country and Austria before the war had 16,000,000 spindles in operation, as against 55,000,000 in the United Kingdom. They consumed annually 2,000,000 bales of American cotton, about 250,000 bales of Indian cotton, and the same quantity of Egyptian cotton.

The Germans lost no time in taking steps, so far as lay in their power, to combat the effects of the Declaration of Contraband. On August 24, 1914, a telegram from Bremen to the *Frankfurter Zeitung* announced the organization in that city of a company having a capital of \$1,000,000 for the importation of cotton. This company was formed . . . with the object of "centralizing the importation of cotton in Germany." The company proposed to obtain steady orders from spinners and dealers in cotton so as to be in a position to offer steady custom to American exporters. The affair has the approval and support of the great banks chiefly interested, and the capital is guaranteed by the Disconto-Gesellschaft, the Deutsche Bank, the Dresdner Bank, and the National Bank.

It is interesting to remark just here that according to Miss Agnes C. Laut, writing in the *Saturday Evening Post* (Philadelphia), of October 9, 1915, the price of cotton in Germany and Austria has risen to 30 cents per pound. She estimates the spindles controlled by the Allies at 80,000,000, but observes that a very striking effect of Ger-

many's inability to obtain cotton has been the great increase of spindles in the United States. She says:

The United States has this year been unable to get its usual quota of manufactured cottons from abroad. Home mills have supplied this . . . and have sent abroad more manufactured cotton than ever before. The exports of manufactured cotton have increased from \$10,000,000 in 1890 to \$75,000,000,—the Government's estimate,—for 1915; whereas the United States imported \$12,000,000 less lace for 1915 up to June 30 than in 1914.

But however cotton manufacturers in Germany in general may be suffering from the embargo it is imprudent to believe, thinks the French writer (the article is anonymous) that Germany will be brought to her knees thereby and forced to sue for peace because of lack of explosives. The fact is that for some years it has been possible to make powder from wood pulp as well as from cotton, and German chemists have been working feverishly to perfect the processes employed.

The great difficulty in the employment of wood pulp in place of cotton is the presence of numerous impurities in the former. The most important of these are resin and oxy-cellulose. The Germans seem to have succeeded in preparing the pulp more rapidly and perfectly than had been done before. [A note in a late number of the *Chemiker-Zeitung* (Cöthen), seems to confirm this.

—EDITOR.]

The secret of the manipulations is naturally not known, but we know that the pulp is reduced to a liquid state, which permits of its complete purification by new processes. It is then pressed into sheets and is now ready for nitrification and the absorption of other chemical substances. . . . Naturally the best woods for this purpose are those which contain little or no resin. But the resinous woods can be purified without difficulty. Wood of every sort is not lacking in Germany, and it is perhaps in prevision of such use that the Germans have accumulated . . . large quantities of wood purchased even in Russia and Scandinavia. Three of the biggest German concerns are already utilized for making explosives from this base; these are the Zellstoff Fabrik, at Waldhof, near Mannheim, which employs nearly 4000 men; the Action Gesellschaft für Maschinenpapier Fabrikation, at Aschaffenburg; and the Zellstoff Fabrik at Kostheim.

While the use of nitrocellulose from wood instead of cotton may require some modification of the guns used, the author thinks it by no means an insoluble problem, and he quotes Mr. W. Lawrence Ball, who wrote a series of articles last August for the *Daily News* (London), called "The Truth about Cot-



KING COTTON GETS ANOTHER JOLT
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

ton," as saying that if deprived of cotton and petroleum the Germans could make cellulose and alcohol to take their places as long as their soil was able to grow plants. However, there are other things necessary in the composition of munitions of war and the final portion of the article in hand gives a résumé of these.

We know that hollow projectiles contain certain explosive matters capable of exploding, either under the action of a time-fuse in contact with fulminate of mercury, or by the contact of a capsule of fulminate with the object struck. Guncotton, used either alone or as "explosive gelatine" (a compound of guncotton and nitroglycerine discovered by Nobel), is not suitable for filling the shells, because if a shell were thus charged it would explode in the chamber of the cannon and burst it. Hence it is necessary to employ explosives capable of supporting the shock of the explosion of the charge in the gun, without themselves exploding. These are of two kinds: the first is picric acid, produced by the action of a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acid on carbolic acid or phenol; the second is obtained by treating in the same manner toluene, likewise distilled from coal-tar. This latter product is T. N. T. or trinitrotoluene. All the belligerents are using it. Its manipulation is not dangerous since a

very powerful detonator is required to make it explode; it can be placed in the shells without danger and has the valuable advantage of not absorbing humidity.

To resume, the manufacture of explosives requires: for guncotton, cotton and the acids above mentioned; for picric acid, phenol; for T. N. T. toluene and nitric and sulphuric acids. For the fulminates, mercury, nitric acid and alcohol are needed. Germany is far from being able to provide all these products. There is no sulphur either in Austria or Germany, it is nearly all imported from Sicily. The sulphurets of iron, or pyrites, come in great part from Spain, but are found in Norway, also and to a very small extent in Germany. However, in the Harz and in Silesia there are deposits of minerals containing sulphur under the form of sulphurets of lead, zinc, etc. Nitrate of soda is exported in enormous quantities from Peru and Chili; it serves for the fabrication of munitions, but is chiefly employed as a fertilizer; distilled with sulphuric acid it gives nitric acid; this, together with sulphuric acid, is used to nitrate glycerine, cotton, phenol, and toluene to produce nitroglycerine, guncotton, picric acid, and T. N. T. However considerable were the provisions of nitrates before the war, it is very probable that they are now entirely exhausted.

Cotton consists of cellulose, which is the essential element of wood. Guncotton is made by plunging cotton into nitric acid for a definite time at a fixed temperature; this operation transforms the cellulose into nitro-cellulose. The change is accomplished by degrees, and there are certain manipulations to render each lot of cotton uniform. Otherwise the explosion would not be uniform, with the same intensity in the same type of cartridge, and the projectile would not follow a constant trajectory.

While all cellulose can be converted into nitro-cellulose the great advantage of cotton resides in the fact that it is composed of innumerable tiny tubes, which facilitates the action of the acid, hence it is easier to obtain the required uniformity than with cellulose from other sources.

THE MASTERY OF THE WORLD

RECOGNIZING the fact that the steady trend of the nations has been towards an increasing use of war as an instrumentality, Rear-Admiral Bradley A. Fiske, U. S. N., discusses in the *North American Review* for October the three forces usually mentioned as likely to change that trend in the direction of peaceful methods, these three forces being civilization, commerce, and Christianity.

The Admiral points out that civilization of itself has never yet made international relations more unselfish. Is not modern civilization, he asks, with its attendant com-

plexities, rivalries, and jealousies provocative of quarrels? Moreover, is not the civilization of the present day a mechanical one? And has not the invention of electrical and mechanical appliances, with the resulting improvements in communication, transportation, and the instruments of destruction, helped the great nations more than the weaker ones, and increased the temptation of the great nations to use force?

While diplomacy was invented as an agency of civilization to avoid war, it seems to have caused almost as many wars as it has averted, but even if it be granted that

the influence of diplomacy has been, in the main, for peace rather than for war, its resources have all been made known and tried out many times, and it cannot be expected to introduce any new force into international politics or exert any more influence in the future than it has in the past.

The interests of commerce, Admiral Fiske admits, are in many ways antagonistic to those of war. But, on the other hand, of all the causes that bring about war the economic causes are the greatest. Men will fight as savagely for money as for anything else, and in the Admiral's opinion, of all the means by which we hope to avoid war the most helpless, by far, is commerce.

As to the influence of Christianity, we are reminded that the Christian religion, which is now being invoked in most of the warring

nations to stimulate patriotic spirit and intensify hatred against the enemy, is thus being made to exert a powerful influence—not towards peace but towards war. The Admiral cannot find in Christianity the basis of any reasonable hope that war between the nations will cease. But even if there were such hope, he draws a sharp distinction between reasonable hope and reasonable expectation. His conclusion, therefore, is "that the world will move in the future in the same direction as in the past; that nations will become larger and larger, and fewer and fewer, the immediate instrument of international changes being war; and that certain nations will become very powerful and nearly dominate the earth in turn, as Persia, Greece, Rome, and Great Britain have done, —and as some other country may do."

DANTE'S NOTION OF A WORLD FEDERATION

NOTWITHSTANDING Dante's fame as a poet, but little attention has been paid, outside of Italy at least, to his prose works in Latin. One of these, however, the little treatise "De Monarchia," embodies Dante's ideas regarding the means to ensure the maintenance of peace between the powers of Europe, and his theory is put forward in a way that must appeal to us to-day more than ever before. The lesson that Dante sought to inculcate has been clearly brought out by Signor G. Rensi, who treats this subject in *Rivista d' Italia* (Rome).

The imperative necessity for union and unity is the keynote of Dante's essay, and in an international union, in the highest sense, he sees a realization of the Divine order of the world as exemplified in the solar system, where each planet follows its own course, but all revolve around a single central body. Following out this thought, Dante says that as the individual states are independent the one of the other, controversies will inevitably arise between them, and every such controversy will require a judge to decide it. In a dispute between two sovereign nations, neither can be accepted by the other as an arbiter. Hence it is absolutely requisite that the decision be pronounced by some authority possessing a more ample and wider jurisdiction than either of the contending states, in other words a supreme international tribunal is needed.

This supreme authority, if all-embracing, would have no temptation to be unjust, since it could gain nothing thereby, and could not be led astray by territorial greed or political ambition. Moreover, this central authority should dispose of more powerful resources than those of any single state, so that its decision would be respected.

Only by the existence of such an international arbitrator can liberty be guaranteed, for the people of each state can resort to it for protection against the menace or practise of oppression and tyranny, whether from without or within. Thus it will guard the citizens against violation of the constitution on the part of their rulers, will settle disputes between the several states, and will prevent aggression of one against another, in short, it will cause justice to be observed and respected by the nations.

An essential point is that this international court shall not interfere, unless within very narrow limits, in the internal affairs and ordering of the individual states; it should, on the contrary, respect the diverse characteristics of the different peoples, and should allow this diversity to express itself in a variety of constitutions and forms of government, each of which will be the spontaneous outgrowth of each national complex and adapted to its needs. It will suffice that the supreme jurisdiction give the few simple rules which should be common to all the states in

order that they may live together in harmony and thus ensure universal peace.

This, in its general outlines, is the exposition of Dante's aims given by his modern Italian interpreter. But now comes the all-important question: Who is to exercise this supreme and beneficent authority? For Dante, the ideal that floated before his mind was a realization in some way of the ancient Pax Romana, the world-peace attained,—only partially we must admit,—by the Roman Empire of the Augustan Age. This is interpreted by Signor Rensi to mean that the arbitral authority should vest in the Latin world, that to the Latin nations should belong the hegemony vainly striven for by Germany. That an Italian should take this view can scarcely be thought strange, and yet

he knows quite well that although Dante drew his idea from the Roman domination of the past, his ardent hope and the great aim of his life was to secure the recognition of the German Emperor (of his day) as the true representative of the Cæsars of old.

Would Dante have felt the same as regards the German Emperor of our day? This is more than doubtful, because the intense national spirit of modern Germany is in direct contradiction with the internationalism characterizing the medieval successors of Charlemagne, and which was for them at once a source of weakness and of strength. Probably if Dante lived to-day in a united Italy, he would have no leanings toward Germany, but would think and feel as a patriotic Italian must do.

JEAN FINOT ON THE MANAGEMENT OF FRENCH FINANCE

THE brilliant editor of *La Revue* (Paris) opens the last number of his magazine with an article from his own pen upon national credit and national finance. There is much in it to interest American as well as French readers, and even those blank spaces whose erstwhile contents were deleted by the censor furnish fruitful food for speculation. The article is entitled, "Ten Billions in Gold for France! Let us Mobilize our Securities."

The ten billions, of course, refer to francs instead of dollars. The introductory paragraphs refer to the probability of a long war and the fact that a decisive victory must depend exclusively upon harmony of civil and military activities. We read:

The sacred union of which we hear so much consists not only in the remission of party polemics and personal quarrels, but also and above all in a general straining towards the same end,—victory! Guided by this idea, we continue to battle against internal dangers, just as our armies are combating external enemies. But the fight against alcohol is far from exhausting the sum total of the services which writers and men of affairs can and should render in the present crisis.

The unanimity with which the press of all shades of opinion works to influence the pouring of gold into the coffers of the State is simply admirable. But, hypnotized by the necessity of an immediate increase in our stock of yellow metal, we have not thought of a means which seems to me more ingenious, and above all far simpler and more efficacious to ameliorate rapidly the situation in which the Treasury finds itself.

M. Finot then divides his subject into its separate aspects under definite heads. The first is called:

1. The Solidity of the Fortune and Credit of France.—The monthly expenditures occasioned by the war, which were, not very long ago, about 1870 million francs per month, will soon exceed two billions. [This article was written in July.—EDITOR.] The issuing of budgetary receipts and bonds has provided about 82 per cent. of our expenses during the war. The other 18 per cent. has been advanced by the Bank of France and the Bank of Algeria.

The mobiliary fortune of France was valued before the war at about 300 billion francs. Should the struggle against the invader be prolonged for two years longer, the expenditures for the three years of war will attain some 70 billion francs, a sum which is far from being beyond the strength of the nation to bear.

Space forbids us to quote in detail the figures here given as to the balances before and during the war in the Bank of France. M. Finot declares that the public response to the appeal of the Treasury has been prompt and that the financial situation is reassuring. He states that while Germany has already borrowed about 45 billions [throughout this article values are given in francs] since the outbreak of the war France has asked for only a third of that amount. Resources for the future include the government monopoly or control of alcohol, petroleum, coffee, etc., as well as a tax on the revenue.

Even the British Government, which has just converted nearly all its debt and placed it on a

footing of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. instead of the former $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., will have much heavier charges to support in the future than France. Moreover, the financial life of Germany is maintained only by confidence in victory. The day this confidence is injured, the great scaffolding of paper will crumble at a blow and the empire of the Kaiser will find itself forced into bankruptcy.

The remainder of this section is devoted to an elaboration of the gloomy outlook for Germany if she loses. M. Finot quotes a "neutral financier" as saying in the *London Times*, that in that event Germany could pay not more than 15 or 16 per cent. of her debts and Austria-Hungary only 11 per cent.

"The Non-Obvious" is next discussed and it is here that the hand of the censor has been heaviest.

The war has, however, modified the *exterior aspect* of our financial prosperity. Our commerce, together with the sojourn of strangers, has always procured an excess of gold for France. In 1912 our receipts of gold exceeded corresponding outgoes by 220 millions, in 1913 by 511 millions. But considerable purchases have depleted the reserves of which France has always been so proud. Since August, 1914, our importations have already exceeded our exportations by $2\frac{1}{2}$ billions.

This circumstance has provoked, by the natural law of supply and demand, a lowering of our exchange. This varies from 10 to 18 per cent. with regard to American, English, Swiss, or Spanish money! Our importations are bound to greatly exceed our exportations during the period of the war. Hence it is necessary to take energetic measures to centralize in the hands of the Government all gold at the disposal of our country.

And the country has replied to the appeal by our eminent Minister of Finance with indescribable enthusiasm. . . . But alas! we must not deceive ourselves with illusions. Enthusiasm, even heated white hot, cannot procure

SUPPRESSED BY THE CENSORSHIP.

Some 300 words are here deleted, the blank space being followed by the section called, "III. Let us Economize for the Benefit of our Own Health and the Safety of our Country." It consists mainly of arguments in favor of spare diet familiar to the world from the days of the Spartans to those of Horace Fletcher; together with advice to cut off superfluous luxuries in general. A brief passage deleted refers apparently to some scandals as to official expenditures. This section closes with the words:

But the collection of gold and various economies will not suffice, however, to procure for us the financial equilibrium, and even less the superabundance of resources, which are absolute conditions of final victory.

The next section suggests a means for making "a radical change in the monetary

situation of the Treasury." M. Finot begins his argument with a bitter attack on the financial oligarchy in general and on the practice of making large loans to foreigners in particular. He says:

In place of developing French industry and commerce, our savings have gone to augment those of foreign lands. Germany has profited, in the first place, by these drains upon our fortune. By neglecting to support national industry and commerce, and operating, rather, against their essential interests, they have ended by gradually destroying French initiative and by transforming the most intelligent people on earth into peaceable *rentiers* (*i. e.*, people content to live on their income), careful above all to have an assured revenue without labor and without intellectual effort.

A number of financial institutions, seconded by some personalities of high finance, have succeeded in centralizing a sort of financial autocracy within their own hands. . . . These operations have even been absolutely contrary to the vital interests of the country. The intermediaries, having an eye to nothing but the realization of their own very high discount, have sent forth the French millions without any profit for the people at large. Worse yet, our money has been commonly used to order goods in other countries.

Section V. is called "Ten Billions within Our Reach." This discusses French holdings of property in foreign countries. These were valued approximately at 27-29 billions in 1902 and 42 billions in 1912. These titles do not include those not quoted in France, whose sum total is believed to be considerable, possibly 15 billions. M. Finot believes after talking with financial specialists that French holdings of foreign securities amount at present to some 60 billion francs. It is estimated that 15 billions of these represent Russian securities, that another quarter is non-vendable, and that the remaining 30 billions are divided among the United States, Great Britain and its colonies, Spain, and South America.

The decrease in value of a great quantity of these holdings must naturally be taken into account, and this is why we admit that there are not more than 10 billion immediately mobilizable. In reality many English and American properties, whose holders are especially recruited in France, have not fallen in value during the war; there are even some which have risen considerably. And as French money has lost 10 to 12 per cent. in comparison with English or American money, we have every interest in selling these at present, for the loss of exchange advantages the vender of these securities.

Here follows a brief blank space bearing only the words:

SUPPRESSED BY THE CENSORSHIP.

The writer continues his argument thus:

We must look the truth in the face. The exportation of the national fortune to foreign countries has rendered difficult the mobilization of the French fortune at a tariff advantageous to the Government. . . . In any event, the French Treasury could and should profit by the peculiar situation of the national savings. As these have not contributed to the industrial and commercial development of the country, they could easily be made to serve the immediate interests of *La Patrie*. *Being essentially mobile, they are, moreover, very easily manageable, and capable of becoming an efficacious weapon when once put at the disposal of a government capable of making use of them.* . . .

Every foreign security represents for us the same advantage as gold from the moment when it can be sold in any country of its origin with which we have business relations. . . . France has just made an appeal to all holders of gold to deposit in her coffers. The fiscal department has the same right, and indeed, duty, to address the same demand to all holders of foreign securities.

Section VI. is called "How to Get Hold of Them." Here M. Finot suggests that the government could delegate to a commission formed by brokers, notaries, the principal curb-brokers [*coulissiers*], and the members of high finance [*la haute banque*] the task of making an inventory without delay of the foreign properties in the hands of the public. The government could arrange either to take these over at current quotations for an equivalent sum payable in obligations of the *Defense Nationale*, or new loan issues, or could receive them as deposits, of which it would have the right to make such use as best served its interests.

The Treasury could then sell these according to its convenience in the various countries where our exchange had suffered respectively the greatest diminution, in order to arrive at a stabilization.

JOFFRE, DEMOCRAT

THAT American democracy has much in common with the modern French brand is clearly brought out in Owen Johnson's interview with General Joffre, which appears in *Collier's* for October 16. Mr. Johnson having introduced the subject of military preparation in the United States, the great French general remarked: "Where a nation is truly republican I do not think there is any danger to the spirit of democracy in military preparation." He stopped for a moment and added:

It is not simply the need of preparation for war, but the need of self-discipline. In a republic where the spirit of individual liberty is always strong, military service gives the citizen a quality of self-discipline which he perhaps needs to respect the rights of others as well as to be able to act in organized bodies. If you have the dread of military service in America, it may be because you are looking at the German ideal rather than at the French. The art of war is practically the same everywhere; the same general principles are taught everywhere. The distinction between the French army and the German is a difference in the conception of the rôle of the soldier. The theory of the Germans is to make of the soldier a machine. They do not wish him to think for himself. By their discipline of fear they rob him of initiative and make his movements absolutely mechanical, entirely subject to the will of his officer. That is why they must attack in close formation. To carry out this theory, the officer class has been made into a Brahmin caste. To perpetuate this kind of feudal supremacy, the officer does not converse directly with the privates, but transmits his orders through the agency of an intermediary class—sergeants and corporals. You have been to the

front, in the trenches and in the camps. You must have seen how different it is with us.

To this Mr. Johnson replied, "Nothing has impressed me more than your spirit of fraternity. In fact, if I had not seen its practical working out I might believe, as many hasty observers must, that it could be subversive of discipline."



GENERAL JOFFRE AT THE ITALIAN FRONT WITH KING VICTOR EMMANUEL

The General seemed eager to remove any impression that the discipline of the French troops had been imperilled by the attitude of the officers toward the men. On this point he said:

Our discipline is not the discipline of fear. We do everything that we can to impress the necessity of this spirit of fraternity. Our soldiers are treated as intelligent human beings, capable of thinking for themselves in great crises. Every day men come from the ranks into leadership. The private soldier is an inexhaustible store from which at necessity we can replenish our staff of officers. They, in turn, are taught that their soldiers are their children; nothing that their private soldiers need or desire must be indifferent to them; they watch over their

comforts and necessities, share their food with them and endure the same hardships. They live together as a great family. When we make a charge, the officer leads his men always—no one has to tell him that—and he does not need to look around to see if he is followed.

The notable loyalty of the French soldiers to their officers, of which Mr. Johnson relates several instances, called out from the General this characteristic comment:

Whatever happens, the French army will never crack. It did not in the first unequal weeks; it never will. When the day comes that the German army must retreat in the face of defeat, it is quite possible that when their theory of discipline—the discipline of fear—is placed to that final test, the result may be a rout.

FRENCH COLONIAL TROOPS

ONE of the most striking features of the war is the presence of alien troops from the colonies of Great Britain and France in Asia and Africa,—a feature, by the way, that has occasioned much bitter comment on the Teutonic side of the fighting line.

The *Revue de Paris* has just published two articles under the general head of "Our Colonial Troops" in its September issues. In the first the subject discussed was "The Creole Contingent," in the second "Our Neglected Forces." The latter presents some interesting facts as to the available number of recruits to be obtained in the Asiatic and African colonies of France, and offers shrewd advice as to the best method of securing voluntary enlistment. The right of conscription is, of course, maintained, but experience has shown that among these half-civilized "natives" volunteer troops are apt to be better fighting men. Moreover, if the right methods of inducement are employed, the author of the article,—designated merely as "X,"—believes that the quantity as well as the quality of the volunteers will be superior to that of the conscripts. We read:

Beyond the blue waters we have taken charge of human groups which participate henceforth in our life, and prosper or suffer with us. Their existence and their destiny are a function of our own. It lies with us to raise them to a superior mode of life and to preserve them from the domination of Germany, who has everywhere shown herself so harsh to native populations, and who sees in her colonies naught but material for exploitation. We have then the right,—and not merely the right of the master,—to require aid from our subjects, since their interests are intermingled with ours.

A list of the populations of France's over-

seas possessions and protectorates follows. Altogether these figures represent a total of nearly 43,000,000.

The author claims, moderately enough, that the total "human resources" at France's disposal, leaving out Northern Africa, in Black Africa and the Far East may be considered to be some 35,000,000. Exploited by European methods this population should be capable of supplying three and one-half million recruits, and he asks why the actual figures are so very far below that number.

Two causes only could justify our extreme caution in the employ of our native forces: their inferiority before such redoubtable adversaries as the Germans, and the difficulty of recruiting. The only native troops we have imported came from Africa: Algero-Tunisians, Moroccans, and black troops. Of the first,—the Turcos,—it is superfluous to speak. . . . Neither do the Moroccans need a eulogy. . . . Because they were less known, and because their employment in Europe has roused passionate polemics, the black troops at first excited distrust. . . .

Here half a dozen lines are deleted, and the text proceeds to quote praise of African troops from the mouths of French officers, such as the following:

The Senegalese soldier has proved from the very beginning of the Franco-German war that he has not lost his soldierly aptitudes. Artillery fire, particularly of the big guns, and its effects were unknown to him. He evinced no surprise, and one might even have said he was amused by it. At Rheims the battalion was showered daily with a rain of shrapnel and shells of large caliber. After the second day the blacks amused themselves, and despite being warned did not seek shelter when outside their trenches. Many were wounded, others were killed, a corporal had his head carried away;



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MOROCCAN TROOPS FIGHTING WITH THE FRENCH ARMY IN THE CHAMPAGNE

but not one single time did the artillery oblige the Senegalese to retreat.

Other words of approval strike the same note, including one by a German correspondent of the *Frankfort Gazette*, who wrote to his paper in December, 1914: "The Senegalese are likewise excellent marksmen, and in general fight very well." As to Indo-Chinese troops, General Pennequin, an officer of large experience in the Far East, gave them high praise, and another writer speaks highly of their courage, discipline, and physical powers of resistance. The author continues:

It should be observed, moreover, that the problem of acclimatization, which might occasion some hesitation, does not arise in the case of a native troop if it is first called on to take part in the operations in spring and summer.

* * * * *

Let us pass now to the second objection: the difficulty in recruiting. The methods of the system of recruiting are different as applied in our various colonies, and are governed by decrees specially adapted to each. But they all lead either to obligatory service, or to a voluntary engagement, which is to tell the truth but poorly paid.

The former plan seems to have worked very badly, the authorities being much troubled by poor recruiting, desertions, and

grave breaches of discipline, but as the author observes, such things are not to be wondered at when we consider the circumstances, *i.e.*, the effect of a sudden demand for a quota of fighting men made in a village of peasants peacefully engaged in agriculture,—a demand that at a moment's notice a number of their bravest, strongest, healthiest, and finest young men should prepare to leave parents, wives, and children in order to set sail to a distant country and risk their lives and limbs in a war of which they had never heard for a cause they could not comprehend.

The solution is plainly indicated by the facts themselves; since conscription does not suffice, let an appeal for volunteers be made. The results it has furnished have always been excellent as regards the quality of the men. As to the number, if it does not increase as fast as our needs that is very likely our own fault. To attract, it is necessary to make an offer. . . . Abundant proofs demonstrate that the native loves the service: the most striking is the number of re-engagements,—about 75 per cent. of the black battalions after the campaigns in Morocco, 33 per cent in Indo-China. When General Mangin's recruiting commission went through A. O. F. (Afrique Occidentale Française) in 1910-11 it was officially authorized to promise the natives four things: 1. Voluntary engagement; 2. Immediate payment of the engagement bonus, thus permitting the volunteer to take a wife at once, by enabling him to pay the *dot* demanded; 3. Leave of absence with free transportation to the

native village between two re-engagements of four years; 4. Retirement at the end of twelve years of service.

Paterfamilias is a person of considerable consequence in the black country. . . . The head of the family exercises all authority because he must provide every necessity. . . . But when we have called out a young man we have removed one of the members of the chief's family without compensation for the sudden loss. Hence we have always had to reckon with the non-indemnified head of the family, submissive in appearance; but sullenly hostile. It is necessary to gain his good will as well as that of the recruit.

Here we have stated precisely the considerations by which we must be guided. They arise from a sentiment which is respectable everywhere and which is peculiarly cherished by the black man: the love of family, both ascending and descending. If we repair the damage done the former by the loss of a man, and if we furnish the latter the means of livelihood we shall have solved our problem. We must extend to Africa the practise of "*allocation*" to the wives of mobilized soldiers. Only here the stipend must be divided between the head of the family and the wife of the soldier. Let us give to the one and to the other a daily indemnity of half a franc (10 cents) and in case of death a pension to be shared between them; let us assure an honorable retirement to the mutilated. We shall thus satisfy both justice and our military needs, for we shall have substituted for authority an

agent which acts otherwise, i. e., the power of money.

The writer assumes that this power is very formidable indeed in these countries. In Mossi, for example, a salary of twenty francs per month,—about \$4,—will enable a militia guard to live like a pasha, with two or three wives, one or more horses, and servants to command.

There is not a country in Africa where a liberal subsistence exceeds one or two cents a day. In the cities, outside certain ports where European packboats touch, a luxurious life can be led on ten or twelve francs per month. The ordinary infantryman has nothing comparable to that, yet his wife, always coquettishly dressed, wears silken garments and jewels of silver or even of gold. For furnishing ten volunteers, 150 francs per month (\$30) would fall into the cash-box of the chief of the *gens*. For that income he would sell his whole family. The business would become positively immoral if one did not know too well what a veritable obstacle to voluntary engagements the obstinate opposition of the old men has always been.

The writer is enthusiastic over his plan and believes half a million recruits could be thus raised in the French colonies within a reasonable time, and not only raised, but equipped and drilled.

THE NEUTRAL POWERS

THE position, present and future, of the states that have so far maintained their neutrality in the war of nations, is treated with a certain originality in a recent issue of *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). The writer regards the attitude to be assumed by these neutrals *after* the conclusion of peace as of almost equal importance with that taken during the conflict. The great question to be eventually solved is the attainment of a general disarmament, or at least a notable reduction of armaments, and the Italian writer does not believe that the Central Powers, Austria and Germany, can be induced to consent to this, in case,—as seems most probable now,—the war should come to an end by the mutual exhaustion of the combatants, rather than by a decisive victory of either side over the other.

What should be done to bring about the desired result? The means here advocated is an economic league between the present Allies and the neutral nations, or such of them as are ready to act in sympathy with the Allies. For this writer the end that may prove impossible of attainment by armed con-

flikt must be attained by an economic conflict which becomes a logical sequence of the present war. Of this the writer says:

If France, England, Italy and Russia are not willing to open their markets and employ their wealth for the preparation of a more terrible war in the future, they must necessarily have recourse to some system of economic defense. This will become the most solid foundation of their military and political policy. If Germany does not spontaneously accept,—as she probably will not,—a policy of peace and disarmament, no other way will remain for the Allies than to adopt toward her a policy of economic pressure, strong enough to render it impossible for the German Government to dispose of the financial resources necessary at once to liquidate the costs of the present war and to prepare the money and equipment needed for a future war.

This policy should be continued until Germany becomes convinced that in our age there is no place for imperialism, militarism, massacres and exterminations. Humanity has a right to live, to labor and to prosper under a régime of security, liberty and peace. Whosoever wishes to attack these fundamental principles of morals, of law, of social relations, should find no place in the new system of international life. As in each state individuals who constitute a danger for their fellow-citizens are isolated, so in the future

society of the nations no place should be found for any government that premeditates new aggressions against the existence, the security, or the well-being of other peoples.

The strongly partisan line of this presentment need not prevent us from seeing that there is an element of truth in the writer's forecast, although we may hope that the resentments and distrust sure to survive the end of the war may pass away sooner than is expected. Of the present situation the Italian writer says:

If the neutral states now find themselves face to face with new political and economic conditions in Europe, the responsibility rests upon the Central Powers, not upon the Allies. They miss their aim when they direct their bitterness and hostility against us. Fortunately facts patent to all demonstrate that there now exists in the society of nations as indestructible a solidarity as among the individuals forming a nation. If in a country there are turbulent elements, a sense of disquietude is aroused among the other inhabitants, a sense of insecurity, of apprehension. This does not pass away until all the orderly citizens have united to control, repress, and even suppress these undesirable elements. So it is in the society of nations.

Every land has now not only the right but the duty of defense. When the Allies resist, whether with arms or by an economic contest, the actual aggression of Germany, and seek to prevent future aggression, they are simply exercising a legitimate right. Whoever acts in self-defense cannot be regarded as violating the rights of others. The best policy for the neutrals would be to unite themselves forthwith in a common

defense with the Allies. They are of course free not to do so, but in this case they ought not to complain of the evils that may befall them, when these result from their own conduct, from their failure to recognize international solidarity in the defense of the human race and in the assurance of its progress. We do not pretend to give advice to anyone, but we must add that with their political, moral and military intervention, the neutral states would not only do a good work, but would at the same time make a good speculation.

That a continuance of the state of things before the war, of the lavish expense for military and naval preparations, when added to the crushing charges that the nations will have to bear to meet the costs of the war, would result in widespread financial disaster, seems a self-evident truth, and any policy that diminishes the outlay for armaments should be welcomed. This in the writer's opinion can only be attained by common action.

In conclusion he calls upon the neutrals to decide on which side they wish to stand, and assures them that the sooner they arrive at a decision the better it will be for them. Of Italy, he declares that she was gradually drifting into a political and economic situation that could not have been maintained, and that would eventually have embroiled her with both parties. This unavoidable position is that of all the neutral powers, and in his opinion the blame and the responsibility therefor both rest upon Germany.

ACTIVITIES OF GERMAN CITIES IN WAR TIME

THE functions of the German city are so much more numerous and complex than those of our own municipal governments, that we sometimes fail to estimate properly the importance of the city in the German scheme of living. Writing in the *National Municipal Review*, Professor Robert C. Brooks, of Swarthmore College, describes a few of the many novel activities that the pressure of war has imposed upon German municipalities.

The use of bread tickets by cities, as a solution of the problem of limiting the consumption of grain and flour, has attracted much attention. Professor Brooks describes some of the difficulties encountered in putting this plan in operation. Police officials were entrusted with the distribution of the tickets, but the great volume of administra-

tive and clerical work required by the new system soon made it necessary to install forces of assistants, and in some places citizens volunteered to do this work without pay.

At the outset the tickets were issued on a uniform basis, the same number each week per person without regard to age, sex, or occupation. Under this policy a hard-working day laborer, in whose diet bread had formed a large and indispensable part, received no more tickets than a professional man or official in easy circumstances who was able to procure abundance of other food. Noting the substantial injustice of this method, some cities adopted more or less complicated schemes taking into account differences of age, sex, occupation and so forth. Such distinctions naturally increased

and complicated the work of distributing tickets. In other cities, while the uniform method was continued, the more comfortably situated persons were requested, as an act of charity, to return any bread tickets they had not used for distribution to persons having greater need of them. The city of Hanover, however, decided against the use of tickets altogether, and sought to reduce consumption by controlling the quantity of flour delivered to bakers. In opposition to this plan it was argued that bakers could not be trusted to divide their product fairly among customers, but would favor the well-to-do.

In the long run every plan adopted for regulating the consumption of bread developed difficulties. It has always been maintained by Germans that the issuing of bread tickets was a mere precautionary measure adopted against the possible failure of this year's crops; but that it, by no means, indicated any immediate shortage of food. The people accepted the measure everywhere with patriotic enthusiasm, and from the beginning have seemed disposed to make the best of it. The criticism in regard to food staples has been directed more against the Imperial Government for its policy of fixing maximum prices for various kinds of grain, and neglecting to fix maximum prices for the corresponding flours and meals. In orders to control the situation against the speculators, several German cities purchased for storage considerable supplies of food, including fresh and preserved meats and potatoes as well as grain.

The war required the establishment by cities of many new channels of relief for the support of soldiers' families. For example, the city of Berlin had expended, during the first seven months of the war, over \$2,000,000, in addition to the Imperial Government's contribution of a like amount. There were over 90,000 such families receiving relief.

There was a serious problem of unemployment at the beginning of the war, and the city of Berlin tried to meet this situation in part by ordering that all building and other undertakings of the city should be carried on as provided in the budget. The city also placed at the disposal of the German War Department a large number of workmen who were employed in strengthening fortifications, and supplied these men, whenever necessary, with articles of clothing. The monetary relief provided by the city for the unemployed amount-

ed at the end of February to \$571,772.

For soldiers' families, who were unable to meet their rent payments, the city made grants conditional upon the reduction in the amount of the rent. Similar relief was also given to the unemployed. Finally ten bureaus were opened in various parts of Berlin for boards composed of officials of the municipal housing department and assistants from private organizations endeavored to adjust difficulties between landlords and tenants. Large sums were voted for school children of poor families, and the city turned over more than 200 acres of land in small plots to citizens for the purpose of making gardens, supplying fertilizer and seeds free of charge. Persons whose homes were mortgaged were also assisted. In coöperation with the four great property owners' associations, the city established a war loan bank, with a capital of 1,000,000 marks, 60 per cent. of which was advanced by the municipal treasury and 40 per cent. by the four private associations. The directory of the Imperial Bank put a credit of 10,000,000 marks at the disposal of this loan bank, the city government undertaking to guarantee half the amount. Thus many foreclosures were avoided.

In its attempt to provision the city the municipal government of Berlin up to the end of the first week in March had expended over \$4,000,000 for foodstuffs. On sales from this stock it had received \$1,302,141. The city has undertaken the purchase and slaughter of 80,000 hogs. It will be a problem, it is said, to find sufficient storage facilities in the city. In case of a suddenly declared peace, the municipality would be seriously embarrassed by these enormous food stores.

On a smaller scale municipalities all over the empire are following Berlin's example. In the meantime war conditions have greatly reduced the tax receipts and other revenue, and as a consequence, tax rates are rising rapidly. For the present year the budget of Berlin reaches ninety-seven million dollars; but this includes loans amounting to nearly seventeen million dollars. This, however, is exclusive of war relief measures which it is proposed to lump together later and care for by bond issues. And, in any event, partial reimbursement is expected from the States and Imperial treasuries.

Along with these special burdens, imposed by the war, the city of Berlin is this year completing the municipalization of its electric light works. Under the franchise the



TAKING CARE OF FATHERLESS CHILDREN AT BERLIN WHILE THE MOTHERS ARE AT WORK

city had reserved the right to purchase the plant on October 1, 1915. Two years' notice was required and had been given in 1913. This is indeed a tremendous undertaking, but the city officials have made the arrangements for the transfer in full confidence. To show that such confidence is in a measure justified, Professor Brooks calls attention to the showing made by the German savings banks in 1914. The year as a whole showed an excess of deposits over withdrawals of \$64,260,000. German of-

ficials are indeed reversing the maxim, "In time of peace prepare for war." In the midst of war they are busy devising ways and means to meet the problems that will come with peace. The need for relief work of various kinds will certainly outlast the war, and in the matter of unemployment requirements will be even greater than at present. Pleas are made for the continuance of food storehouses, granaries, municipal bakeries, slaughter-houses, milk-stations, and cattle-fattening establishments.

INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH AND THE MELLON INSTITUTE

THE Mellon Institute of Industrial Research, in Pittsburgh, recently marked its graduation from the experimental stage by taking possession of a \$350,000 home. It has evidently come to stay, and to serve as a model for other institutions of similar aims at other centers of industry throughout the country.

Mr. W. A. Hamor, of the Institute's staff, discusses "The Value of Industrial Research" in the initial number of the *Scientific Monthly*,—a magazine that is new in nothing except its name, for in parting with its former title to the journal hitherto known as the *World's Advance* the *Popular Science Monthly* retains all the earmarks of its old self.

Mr. Hamor tells us first how the industrial researcher is rapidly coming into his own in America, and then how the Mellon Institute is solving the problem of the manufacturer who wishes to profit by industrial research but does not find it feasible or expedient to maintain an elaborate research establishment on his own premises.

Ten thousand American chemists are at present engaged in pursuits which affect over 1,000,000 wage-earners and produce over \$5,000,000,000 worth of manufactured products each year. These trained men have actively and effectively collaborated in bringing about stupendous results in American industry. There are, in fact, at least nineteen American industries in which the chemist has been of great assistance, either in founding the industry, in developing it, or in

refining the methods of control or of manufacture, thus ensuring profits, lower costs and uniform outputs.

Here are some details of these achievements:

The chemist has made the wine industry reasonably independent of climatic conditions; he has enabled it to produce substantially the same wine, year in and year out, no matter what the weather; he has reduced the spoilage from 25 per cent. to 0.46 per cent. of the total; he has increased the shipping radius of the goods and has made preservatives unnecessary. In the copper industry he has learned and has taught how to make operations so constant and so continuous that in the manufacture of blister copper valuations are less than \$1 apart on every \$10,000 worth of product, and in refined copper the valuations of the product do not differ by more than \$1 in every \$50,000 worth of product. The quality of output is maintained constant within microscopic differences. Without the chemist the corn-products industry would never have arisen and in 1914 this industry consumed as much corn as was grown in that year by the nine States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey and Delaware combined; this amount is equal to the entire production of the State of North Carolina and about 80 per cent. of the production of each of the States of Georgia, Michigan, and Wisconsin; the chemist has produced over 100 useful commercial products from corn, which, without him, would never have been produced. In the asphalt industry the chemist has taught how to lay a road surface that will always be good, and he has learned and taught how to construct a suitable road surface for different conditions of service. In the cottonseed oil industry, the chemist standardized methods of production, reduced losses, increased yields, made new use of wastes and by-products, and has added somewhere between \$10 and \$12 to the value of each bale of cotton grown. In the cement industry, the chemist has ascertained new ingredients, has utilized theretofore waste products for this purpose, has reduced the waste heaps of many industries and made them his starting material.

Analogous feats have been accomplished in the manufacture of sugar, textiles, fertilizers, soda, leather, flour, celluloid, glass, pulp and paper; in brewing, food-preservation, and municipal water supply. All along the line industrial research means cheaper methods, better products, and the utilization of materials previously wasted, so that "manufacturing, at one time entirely a matter of empirical judgment and individual skill, is

more and more becoming a system of scientific processes." It is clear that Germany learned this long ago.

When an industry has problems requiring solution, these problems can be attacked either inside or outside of the plant. If the policy of the industrialist is that all problems are to be investigated only within the establishment, a research laboratory must be provided for the plant or for the company. At present, in the United States, probably not more than one hundred chemical manufacturing establishments have research laboratories or employ research chemists, although at least five companies are spending over \$100,000 per year in research.



THE MELLON INSTITUTE OF INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH

An alternative to this plan is offered by the kind of scientific establishment of which the Mellon In-

stitute is the prototype in this country and with which Europe is well supplied.

According to the system of industrial research in operation at the Mellon Institute of Industrial Research of the University of Pittsburgh, which is not, in any sense of the word, a commercial institution, a manufacturer having a problem requiring solution may become the donor of a fellowship; the said manufacturer provides the salary of the researcher selected to conduct the investigation desired, the institute furnishing such facilities as are necessary for the conduct of the work.

The money paid in to found a fellowship is paid over by the institute in salary to the investigator doing the work. In every case, this researcher is most carefully selected for the problem in hand. The institute supplies free laboratory space and the use of all ordinary chemicals and equipment. The chemist or engineer who is studying the problem works under the immediate supervision of men who are thoroughly trained and experienced in conducting industrial research.

At the present time, the Mellon Institute, which, while an integral part of the University of Pittsburgh, has its own endowment, is expending over \$150,000 annually for salaries and maintenance. A manufacturer secures for a small expenditure, —just sufficient to pay the salary of the fellow, as the man engaged on the investigation is called, —all the benefits of an organization of this size, and many have availed themselves of the advantages, twenty-eight companies maintaining fellowships at the present time.

Each fellow has the benefit of the institute's very excellent apparatus, chemical and library equipment,—facilities which are so essential in modern research; and because of these opportunities and that of being able to pursue post-graduate work for higher degrees, it has been demonstrated that a higher type of researcher can be obtained by the institute for a certain remuneration than can be generally secured by manufac-

turers themselves. There is a scarcity of men gifted with the genius for research, and it requires much experience in selecting suitable men and in training them to the desirable degree of efficiency, after having determined the special qualities required. Important qualifications in industrial researchers are keenness, inspiration and confidence; these are often unconsidered by

manufacturers, who in endeavoring to select, say, a research chemist, are likely to regard every chemist as a qualified scientific scout.

All researches conducted at the Mellon Institute are surrounded with the necessary secrecy, and any and all discoveries made by the fellow during the term of his fellowship become the property of the donor.

A FRENCH INTERPRETATION OF PAN-GERMANISM

THE so-called "pan-German movement," which crystallized as long ago as 1895 in published plans for the formation of a Germanic federation in Central Europe, embracing Austria-Hungary, Holland, and Belgium, the Prussian provinces of Russia, and portions of France, is the subject of two articles contributed to *L'Illustration* (Paris), by André Chéradame.

In connection with the first of these articles, there is reproduced a German map

intended to show the extent of this Central European federation in the year 1950. With the second article there is a map which represents pan-German claims as developed in 1911, and also shows the actual Eastern and Western fronts held by the German and Austrian forces during the present war. This French writer is convinced that the hopes built up in Germany at the beginning of the war, while quite in line with the territorial aspirations connoted by the term "pan-



A FRENCH REPRESENTATION OF PAN-GERMANISM AS DEVELOPED IN 1911, WITH THE ALIGNMENT OF THE PRESENT WAR

(The arrows indicate the general direction of the great railway lines; these are of special interest in connection with the situation in the Balkans)

Germanism," will be found to be chimerical. Berlin, he says, never foresaw Belgium's resistance, or England's entrance into the conflict. While the first year of the war has prevented the realization of pan-German

dreams, and has permitted the organization of the Allies, the second year, he says, will mark the complete failure of pan-Germanism, and so will assure liberty of peoples and of civilization.

THE "JITNEY 'BUS" AND ITS FUTURE

DURING the past year we have heard and seen much of a new scheme of local rapid transit,—the jitney 'bus,—a combination of the trolley and the taxicab. The jitney is an automobile of any kind or condition in which one or several passengers may ride, usually over a fixed route, for a 5-cent fare. The plan originated with a Los Angeles man. The following day he had half a dozen imitators; and the service proved so attractive to both operators and the public that it spread rapidly to all parts of the country.

Mr. William J. Locke, of San Francisco (counsel of the League of California Municipalities), contributes to the *National Municipal Review* an article on the jitney 'bus which shows wide range of observation and considers the subject in its several phases.

He finds that in many cities the 'bus service has had a serious effect on the business of the street-railway companies.

In Los Angeles, for instance, it has been estimated that the loss amounts to \$2,000 per day. . . . Reports from Vancouver for the first quarter of the year indicate that the percentage of the gross receipts which the city will receive from the railway companies for 1915 will be from

\$30,000 to \$35,000 less than last year, due to the operation of 350 jitney 'buses. . . . Increased patronage of the jitneys in Memphis has necessitated a retrenchment on the part of the Memphis street-car companies, involving a reduction of 30 per cent. in the shop force and a cut from 10 to 20 per cent. in the salaries of the remaining employees. Similar retrenchments by the street-car companies are reported from Bridgeport, Conn., and Grand Rapids, Mich. The San Francisco-Oakland Terminal Railroads, according to the company's officials, have been losing \$500 per day in fares since the advent of the jitney. In Seattle, one company claims a loss of \$2,450 daily, while another estimates that it will carry fewer passengers this year by 21,000,000 than it did in 1914, if the jitney competition continues.

Even more serious, however, has been the effect on the safety of street travel. In Los Angeles the number of accidents increased 50 per cent. within two months after the first jitney appeared.

Wherever the jitney is found one is also sure to find heated discussion relative to taxation and other forms of regulation. In some cities the owner needs merely a hack-driver's license,—while his competitor, the traction company, is hampered with franchises, taxes, the maintenance of equipment other than rolling stock, and the necessity of rendering service at all hours and under all conditions.

Regarding regulation, Mr. Locke writes as follows:

The legal status of the jitney business has not been clearly determined. In Washington, the State public service commission recently decided that the jitneys are common carriers and subject to regulation by the commission. In California, however, the State commission has decided that it has no jurisdiction. In Oregon, the legislature refused to put the jitney business under control of the State commission.

Up to the present time, the principal extent of the regulation has been limited to pro-



A JITNEY CAR OF THE BETTER TYPE

protecting the public from careless or irresponsible drivers, overcrowding, indignities to female passengers, arbitrary changes of routes, and liability in case of accident. Other regulations cover the questions of route, the territory to be served and the seating capacity in the car. Many ordinances authorize the city council to refuse a license if the territory is already served.

Whether or not the jitney has come to stay is obviously a matter of opinion. Its early success gives reason for believing that it has; but some traction authorities maintain that it is merely a fad and a nuisance, and that when the novelty wears off the jitney will disappear almost as rapidly as it came into being. Mr. Locke believes that it has come to stay, and quotes another writer's analysis on that point:

The "jitney 'bus" is a business anomaly,—a business failure that is bound to stay; a failure because only rarely can the operator secure enough passengers in a day to pay the operating expense and repair costs on his car, make an adequate allowance for depreciation and pay himself a reasonable wage on a five-cent fare. This is admitted by many of the drivers, so it is claimed. What they are really doing is selling the residue value in old cars to the public in nickel instalments, living on their cars, if they are their own, or making a bare living from a second-hand dealer, until they can get some kind



A FAMILIAR SCENE IN WESTERN CITIES

of a steady job. The men in the automobile trade point out that this kind of people and this kind of cars and conditions will be found in some cities all the time, and that as fast as one goes out of the jitney business his place will be taken by another.

Mr. Locke sees "every indication that the jitney 'bus is the forerunner of the trackless car." The elimination of the track, poles, and wires would give the streets a more pleasing appearance and remove a source of danger. Besides, the auto-car is speedy and comparatively noiseless; and, its path and route being flexible, the passengers will never suffer the inconvenience of a blockade, so common with ordinary trolley-car systems.

VERHAEREN ON "UNCIVILIZABLE GERMANY"

THE great Belgian poet, whose flaming book on "Belgium's Agony" has just appeared in this country in translation, has written for *Les Annales* (Paris) a very remarkable article called "Uncivilizable Germany." As a mere arraignment of Germany it would hardly be worth while to quote it, perhaps, but it is far more than that. It is an exceedingly interesting psychological study of a certain type of mind,—the mind that is obedient, patient, reverent of authority, and for that very reason, thinks Verhaeren, incapable of the highest flights of invention, of spontaneity, of originality, in a word, of *liberty*.

Germany, he maintains, is essentially

feudal, and may possess a "culture," but not a "civilization." That is to say, vast stores of knowledge do not necessarily imply delicacy of feeling and propriety of action.

The spirit of society, of pride, of liberty, is independent, not of the intelligence, but of knowledge. The German professor is a walking library. He hoards, he arranges, he comments. Arrangement and discipline to him take the place of all else. These slowly inculcate in him the spirit of dependence and of servility. It is perhaps because he classifies so much that he is so tamely submissive. To him everything is related in an ascending and descending scale. Everything becomes a pigeon-hole. Why, then, should it be astonishing that the mind of every Teuton is only a dry and rigid case? . . .

It has already been said: The German inherits

almost nothing. He labors upon the inventions of others. In order to invent it is necessary to have a spirit of rebellion against that which is. The German cannot have this. He is always the creature who accepts. But as soon as a new discovery appears he seizes upon it. He examines it patiently, he turns and re-turns it in every direction. . . . Thus he succeeds in augmenting its power. Still more, he wishes it to render service and to be classified in practical use, just as he himself serves and is classified in life.

Verhaeren declares that the Germans have never opened a main road in science, that it is only in lateral paths that they blaze the way. Thus Leibnitz and Kant took their departure from the royal highway opened by Descartes, Haeckel could scarce have existed without Darwin, Koch and Bering founded their labors on those of Pasteur.

This second-hand science is excellent to attract mediocre men. To work, each in his little corner, to solve secondary questions, and believe oneself somebody, . . . flatters the universal vanity. All the little provincial universities can enjoy the illusion of being filled with savants, thanks to the German conception of what is learned and serious. It is the tranquil internment in laboratories, and the absolute negation of the spirit of initiative, of spontaneity, and above all of the spirit of protest and of revolt. If the German people had been truly civilized, they would never have kept silence in the face of the assassination of Belgium. Yet more: among those whose ideas are contrary to the accepted political order not one has raised his voice against the crime admitted and proclaimed at the beginning of the war, in full Parliament, by the chancellor, Bethman-Hollweg. The universal astonishment at such a silence was so great that even to-day the world has not recovered from it. With the exception of Liebknecht the Social-Democracy is dishonored. . . . In its excuses it aggravates its fault. It says: "Our men would have been arrested and imprisoned." We answer: "Are they, then, afraid to die?"

Continuing in this vein Verhaeren observes that in the Social-Democracy everything was as methodically organized as in the German universities and armies. Its vast membership raised the belief that it was triumphantly invincible, that it represented the true Germany.

It ought to serve as an example to all the democracies on earth. Those who swore by it declared that it would devour imperialism when it became necessary. But last August it, itself, was the one devoured, in an hour in the Reichstag. During a recent visit to the Maison du Peuple de Bruxelles, some German socialists expressed astonishment that the Belgian socialists attached so much importance to the invasion of their territory. "What is it, then, that attaches you to your country?" they inquired. "Honor," someone answered. "Honor! Honor! That's a very bourgeois ideal," interrupted the Germans.

This gives our poet occasion to affirm that honor is the very armament of civilization, and that so far from being bourgeois, it is essentially an aristocratic ideal, created slowly by the élite of humanity, during the course of centuries. He declares:

When force educates itself it opposes itself; it limits and ennobles itself; it becomes intelligent and tempers itself with reserve and tact. Thus brutal force evolves into moral force; might becomes right. The more a nation lends itself to such a change, the more it elevates itself from the material to the spiritual plane, the more it installs in its institutions respect for the entire human being, the more civilized does it become.

Such a nation remains faithful to its pledged word; no interest, not even necessity, imposes felony upon it; it loves to protect and not to suppress those who are weaker than itself; it takes it to heart to propagate throughout the world certain principles of social life, which are Utopian, certainly, but which it is beautiful to have beneath the eyes and within the heart, in order to live not only for the present but also for the future.

These admirable principles, which will never be put in practice in totality, but which we must always endeavor to approach, are the expression of the profoundest human generosity. They are the radical negation of brutal and primitive force; they orient the world toward a serene and unanimous peace; they have faith in the infinite perfectibility of consciences.

It has been my lot to be present in certain European capitals, at numerous reunions where English, French, Italians, Russians, and Germans met and conversed. They were all, I was assured, chosen men. Their various nations might be proud of them. But the German rarely exhibited an admirable attitude. He was at once embarrassed and arrogant. Finesse eluded him. . . . He seemed to be afraid of not appearing *au courant* with everything. The most eccentric taste seemed best to him. . . . As soon as he was allowed to talk and found a listener he inaugurated a course of lectures. He did not find it necessary to be lucid. One rarely knew precisely what he was trying to say. . . . With what heaviness the German diplomat moves over green carpets! With what *gaucherie* the conquering German implants himself in the conquered country!

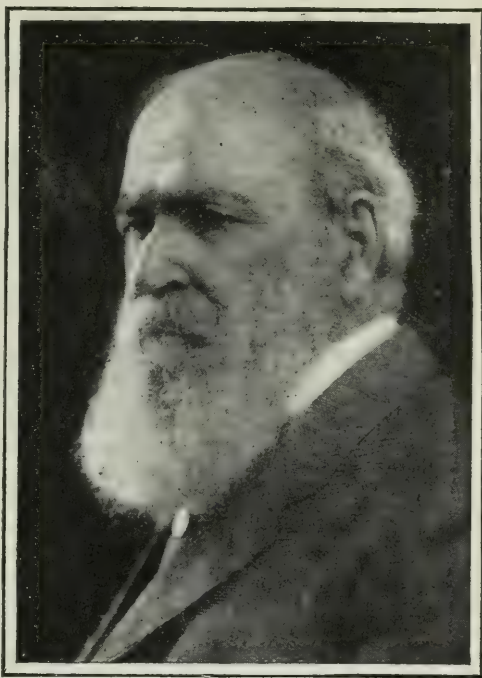
While France at the end of half a century had made herself beloved in Savoy, at Mentone, and at Nice; while in two centuries she had assimilated Lille and Dunquerque, Strasbourg and Alsace; while England attaches Egypt and the Cape in a few decades, Germany remains execrated, in Poland, in Schleswig, and in Alsace-Lorraine. She is essentially the *persona-ingrata* wherever she presents herself. . . . She makes proclamations that act on minds like frost on plants. She does not know how to attract, to seduce, or to civilize because she lacks profound and personal moral force. Europe has remained the most admirable place for human development that ever existed, under the successive hegemonies of Athens, of Rome, and of Paris. Under German hegemony she would progress toward a sort of dry, hard organization, where everything would be impeccably disposed, merely because tyranny was so complete.

A GREAT AMERICAN HELLENIST: PROFESSOR BASIL L. GILDERSLEEVE

IT is with no careless exaggeration that Professor Edwin Mims characterizes as "one of the most interesting and picturesque figures in America to-day" Professor Basil L. Gildersleeve, who in his eighty-fourth year has recently resigned the chair of Greek at Johns Hopkins University. For sixty years, as Professor Mims reminds us, in the *Methodist Review* (Nashville), Professor Gildersleeve has been "an active teacher, a productive scholar, and a writer and conversationalist of singular charm and wide distinction." Like Browning's venerable Rabbi, he "serenely and smilingly looks forward to 'the best of life that is yet to be.'" The lamp of youth still burns as brightly in his recent lectures at the University of Virginia as when he, a young scholar fresh from Germany, taught his first class in the same University, or made his first plea for Hellenism in the columns of the old *Southern Review*.

To Professor Gildersleeve Mr. Owen Wister has assigned a place in his calendar of great American scholars who even by the most absolute standards are entitled to rank as world-scholars. "No one," says Professor Mims, "would deny him that place, and few would criticize his selection as a member of the American Academy of Immortals. For his attainments, as a scholar, his critical ability, his humor, and his distinction of manner would have made him, if he had lived in Paris, a member of the greatest of all Academies."

Professor Gildersleeve does not belong to the Hellenists alone; for he is at once a specialist and a man of wide and liberal culture, a plodder and a writer of singular literary charm. I would not at all discount the important work that he has done as a Greek scholar at a time when the tide has set in so strongly against Greek in this country, and even in conservative England. Even laymen, who cannot with him grow enthusiastic over "the tensile strength of the cases and the spectrum of the moods," have a right to claim him as the champion of Greek literature and as a promoter of liberal culture. He has many of the characteristics of a man of letters. He has himself—now humorously and now with a note of pathos—commented on the droll fate "that a man whose ambition for all his early years was to be a poet, or, failing that, to be a man of letters, should have his name, so far as he has a name at all, associated with that branch of linguistic study which is abhorrent to so many finely constituted souls." Even in his work as a dry-as-dust investigator, he has not been able to suppress his vivacities of style.



PROFESSOR BASIL L. GILDERSLEEVE, FOR NEARLY FORTY YEARS THE REVERED HEAD OF THE GREEK DEPARTMENT AT JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

He somewhere remarks of Gibbon that he "chuckles in the dark cellar of his notes, where he keeps so much of his high game"—words that characterize felicitously much of his own writing in the "Brief Mention Department" of the *American Journal of Philology*, where the editor is always naively personal in his comments on men and books. No contemporary writer shows a greater charm in his literary allusions, ranging from Homer to Bernard Shaw and Anatole France. It has been his lifelong contention that "even the most careful workmanship of the philologist should be matched by the *curiosa felicitas* of the literary artist." His "Essays and Studies"—a series of articles reprinted from various reviews—is marked by insight, humor, wisdom, and exquisite literary taste.

In his boyhood days at Charleston, S. C., Professor Gildersleeve seemed predestined for a literary career. At twelve he had translated Anacreon. Before he was fourteen he had read Corneille, Racine, and Molière. At Princeton, where he went in 1847, he read much French and Italian, notably Montaigne and Dante. Then he read the Elizabethan dramatists, and last of all Goethe. He has referred to this period in his life as "the epoch of my Teutomania,

a time when I read German, wrote German, listened to German, and even talked German."

Although in 1850 it was a very unusual thing for a Southern man to go to a German university, young Gildersleeve decided on that course and passed three years at Berlin, Göttingen, and Bonn, where he received special training as a classical philologist and a deepening interest in "the spiritual reproduction of antiquity." Of those days he wrote in later years: "To see Germany, to enter a German university, to sit at the feet of the great men who had made and were making German scholarship illus-

trious, stirred the blood of aspiring youth."

In 1856 he became Professor of Greek at the University of Virginia; but within five years came the Civil War, which interrupted his scholarly career, and in which he saw much service on the side of the Confederacy. He became a member of General John B. Gordon's staff, and a few years ago related the story of his war experiences in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

After Appomattox he resumed his academic career at the University of Virginia, where he remained until 1876, when he was chosen as the first Professor at the new Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

A PROPOS of the Industrial Relations Commission's recent inquiry into the great philanthropic and educational foundations of the country, the report of the General Education Board, covering the twelve years of its activity from its foundation in 1902 to July, 1914, has a timely interest. The important features of this report have been admirably summarized for the *Educational Review* (New York), by Professor William H. Carpenter, of Columbia University. In the following paragraphs we shall closely follow Professor Carpenter's article.

The report makes clear that the entire field of education in the United States (using the word "education" in its broadest meaning) is open to the board under the authority conferred upon it by its charter. The board can use its resources in supplementing the income of institutions already established; it can coöperate alike with public authorities and with private organizations; it can undertake educational experiments along any line and on any level; and it can conduct educational research and disseminate reports and data. As Professor Carpenter well says, this is a field of operation practically unbounded in its extent and a function, if wisely exercised, almost incalculable in the possibility of benefits that may be conferred.

Since its foundation the board has received from Mr. Rockefeller more than \$50,000,000, a large proportion of which sum has been distributed, the University of Chicago having received \$13,554,343 and the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research \$10,267,022. At the present time the

board's resources are valued at \$33,939,156, of which \$30,918,063 is general endowment and \$3,021,093 reserve fund. The gross income for the year 1913-14 was \$2,426,311. The appropriations of the board for all purposes up to June, 1914, amounted to nearly \$16,000,000.

The board's activities during the twelve years have moved in two principal directions: education in the South and higher education in the whole United States.

In the South much had already been done to aid and improve special educational agencies, but the General Education Board first made a survey of the entire field, and after acquiring a comprehensive knowledge of conditions in the Southern States, it decided that before a system of public schools could be successfully maintained better economic conditions must prevail. The inefficient school systems that were the rule in the South ten years ago were not primarily due to any lack of interest in popular education, but were mainly the result of rural poverty, and this in a region where the resources of the soil were ample and the climate was favorable to general prosperity.

It seemed clear to the board that farming in the South must be put on a new basis, that the farmer must go about his work more intelligently before any adequate system of schools could be supported by taxation. Until the public school could fairly represent the community ideals, community initiative, and community support, the board believed that it was falling short of its purpose, and that no attempts to develop public schools by private gifts would really serve the community. Therefore it was decided

to undertake the agricultural training of the farmer on the theory that if he could be substantially helped to secure better economic results he would gladly support better schools.

This was the origin of the great work of farm demonstrations, in which the General Education Board cooperated with the Government at Washington. The board has expended nearly \$1,000,000 in this work, and it was declared that the results have been not only better farm conditions and increased financial profit, but a social and educational awakening of the rural South. Such work as this is, of course, fundamental, and while a complete transformation in conditions could hardly be expected within the space of a single decade, it is not too much to say that interests and activities have been stimulated in the South which are sure, in the long run, to bring about great changes for the better in all those matters that have to do with educational development.

The great educational problem in the South is the rural school problem, and it is that which has been made the center of the General Education Board's attack. There is no doubt whatever that the farm demonstration work has brought about increased provisions for schools, and in those regions where this work has been most successful, vigorous efforts have been made to remedy school deficiencies. Realizing that without high schools the educational system would largely fail of its purpose, the board has, from the beginning, tried to further the building up of good secondary schools. As a result of its policy of providing funds for the several State universities and departments of education for the salaries and traveling expenses of "professors of secondary education," there have been established in eleven Southern States no less than 626 four-year high schools and 612 three-year high schools, the board's appropriations for this movement amounting to \$248,861.

North of Mason and Dixon's line the work of the board has been chiefly known in its relation to college and university education. After a survey of the chaotic conditions that prevailed in the field of higher education at the time when it began its work, the board was at length enabled to formulate a definite policy, which the report states as follows: (1) Preference for centers of wealth and population as the pivots of the system; (2) systematic and helpful cooperation with religious denominations; (3) concentration of gifts in the form of en-

dowment. In the matter of location the board has been governed in its selection for assistance by its preference for those institutions situated within a field where students could be easily procured, where the care of a prosperous community could be counted on, and where an appetite for education and culture could be stimulated, at the same time not passing by older institutions, otherwise located.

In the matter of endowment it was tentatively estimated that an efficient college should enjoy an income from endowment covering from 40 to 60 per cent. of its annual expenditure. It was decided that the gifts of the board should be made to endowment, and on such terms as were calculated to draw further funds to the selected institutions. Up to June 1, 1914, says the report, the board made contributions to 103 colleges and universities; to nineteen of these it has made a second appropriation. The sums pledged by the board amounted to \$10,588,591. The institutions assisted have pledged themselves to raise additional sums aggregating almost \$40,000,000.

In the field of professional schools the board has, thus far, confined its attention to medical colleges. It has selected for assistance three medical schools: The Johns Hopkins, to which \$1,500,000 has been appropriated for endowment; the Washington University, of St. Louis, to which the board has given \$750,000 towards a \$1,500,000 endowment, and the Yale University Medical Department, to which has been given \$500,000 toward a \$2,000,000 endowment.

To seven negro colleges and universities the board has appropriated \$140,000. The conclusions that have determined these gifts, according to the report, are that the higher education ought to be furnished to capable negro men and women; but the mere attempt to deliver the traditional college curriculum to the negro does not rightly constitute for him a higher education. His own needs, environment, capacity, and opportunity should be studied, and the college curriculum should be framed in the light of the facts in the case.

The characteristic method of procedure adopted by the board, as Professor Carpenter understands it, has been based upon two fundamental principles: a thorough investigation of a proposed field of operations in order to secure at the outset an accurate appreciation of the underlying facts, and the evolution on the basis of facts of a well-developed and consistent plan of cooperative assistance. Publicity of all operations is the rule.

THE NEW BOOKS

STUDIES OF CHRIST'S MESSAGE

ALL honor to the men and women who find courage to wield fluent and eloquent pens to interpret the message of Jesus Christ to the modern world! Mrs. Spencer Trask has approached this task in her new book, "The Mighty and the Lowly,"¹ with great inspiration and an almost sublime certainty. She has portrayed in a setting of singular literary charm the humanity of Jesus that, taking no thought for social differentiation, offers the one remedy for our social ills, and teaches the all-around democracy that shall unite class with class, and bring men to the realization of their divine right to inherit the Kingdom of God. Throughout the book emphasis is placed upon the present necessity of man's awakening to recognize himself as a spiritual being, who must claim his kinship with God, and reflect that kinship in the brotherhood of man. Whether the full realization of this ideal is actually possible here and now, must not be argued; we must resolutely, with this end in view, set about to arouse the latent spiritual senses by discipline, training and cultivation; we must strive to perceive the essential life of the soul. By so doing we shall come to the high vision that Mrs. Trask has reflected in "The Mighty and the Lowly"; the vision of the democracy, the beauty, and the blessing of the Gospel of Jesus Christ, applied in its entirety to every social order.

A remarkable book, "The Man Jesus,"² by Mary Austin, which appeared serially in the *North American Review*, presents a brief account

of the life and teachings of the "Prophet of Nazareth," from a point of view such as might have existed in the time of Jesus. In one sense this book is beyond criticism, for its sincerity, and the authenticity of its message cannot be questioned. In the first chapter, Mrs. Austin synthesizes the evolution of the Hebrews in order to shape the racial mold that held the Nazarene. The tribes of Judah were mountain people, of diverse characteristics united by the bond of their religion, the worship of the "High and Holy One Who Inhabith Eternity." Mrs. Austin is courageous enough to be orthodox in her unorthodoxy, to show us Jesus as the divine man, a mystic; an exponent of spiritual efficiency, who set a "minimum value for every soul of both sexes and all classes"; one who came declaring that society must rise to a state of consciousness, which will enable the will of God to be worked out freely. He accused the priests and Pharisees of the identical sin that retards the progress of the world to-day,—the use of the name instead of the power of God.

Mrs. Austin handles her prose in masterly fashion. The lyricism of the descriptive passages approaches the stately rhythms of King James' Scriptures. Her message in condensed form is contained in the closing paragraph of the book: "Christianity is not a system of theology, but a way of life in which the validity of your relation to God is witnessed in your relation to your neighbor." She has told us what Christ did and taught, not what theologians have said about him.

SCIENCE AND PHILOSOPHY

BROADLY speaking, our greatest scientific mystery is the sun. Our knowledge about the sun is of comparatively recent date. We know that it is a star, 865,000 miles in diameter, its weight 332,800 times that of the earth; that it is a body with a gaseous atmosphere varying in temperature between 6,200° and 7,000° centigrade. How its heat is replenished, how the sun-fires are maintained, we have guessed, but we do not know. Great spots appear from time to time on its envelope, solar cyclones that cover billions of square miles in area. Drawn by this stupendous force, the earth is swinging with the sun through space toward a region between the constellations of Lyra and Hercules near the star Vega at the rate of ten to twelve miles a second. But before we gained our slight scientific knowledge of the sun, it had been venerated from time immemorial as a god, as the Giver of Light and Life. Mr. William Tyler Olcott has gathered

all the myths and legends of the sun into a singularly fascinating volume, "Sun Lore of All Ages,"³ which is illustrated with thirty full-page photographic reproductions and several drawings. The student of mythology will be interested to note the agreement of the traditions of primitive races in regard to the sun-myth. In ancient heraldry and in church decoration one finds the surviving symbols of sun-worship. The Royal Arms of England display the Solar Lion and the Lunar Unicorn; and the Christian Church still celebrates the old Solar Festivals.

"The Open Court Series" of scientific and philosophical works offers "Contributions to the Founding of the Theory of Transfinite Numbers,"⁴ by Georg Cantor. This book will be of interest only to students of higher mathematics, but it is possible to give an idea to the layman of the

¹ The Mighty and the Lowly. By Katrina Trask. Macmillan. 165 pp. \$1.

² The Man Jesus. By Mary Austin. Harpers. 215 pp. \$1.20.

³ Sun Lore of All Ages. By William T. Olcott. Putnam's. 346 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁴ Contributions to the Founding of the Theory of Transfinite Numbers. By Georg Cantor. Open Court Publishing Co. 211 pp. \$1.25.

problems it contains. Thus; we say that the square root of 2 lies necessarily between 1 and 2. But it is not commensurable with either; is it then really a thing of the same kind? Or 64 is the square of 8, and also the cube of 4; but are these two ideas called 64 really the same? Can there be a series of numbers unreal, or irrational, or both in the same sense as there is a series 1, 2, 3, etc.? What laws govern such series? What are numbers? Is there any ground for asserting that the interval between two and three is identical with that between three and four?

And though a savage may distinguish between two objects, and three objects, does the idea 2, or 3, mean anything except as connected with objects? The translation of this book, also the notes and introduction, are the work of Philip E. B. Jourdain, M.A.

"Mithraism,"¹ by W. J. Phythian-Adams, presents a brief survey of the religion of Mithras which in certain essential details bore a startling resemblance to the religion of Christ. The modern world knew very little about this ancient faith until archaeology brought its mysteries to light. Mithras was a veritable Lord of the Hosts of Light and of Truth, the foe of all that was unclean and impure. The author thinks that this splendid pagan cult perished not because it was entirely bad, but because it was so nearly good, and thus constituted the one formidable rival to the Christian faith. In its spiritual side, it expounded the doctrine of "Sin, Redemption, Sacramentary Grace, and Salvation to Everlasting

Life"; in its outward form, the ceremonies included "Baptism, the Sign on the Brow, the Communion of Bread and Cup." The author follows the progress of Mithraism from the East into Europe, and traces its growth under the domination of the Cæsars.

David Eugene Smith, of Columbia University, has edited Augustus De Morgan's amazing work, the "Budget of Paradoxes."² His object,—as stated,—has been to make the reading more pleasant, rather than to improve upon one of the most delicious bits of satire of the nineteenth century. For those who are not familiar with De Morgan's research, it may be said that he published the original "Budget" to enable persons who have been puzzled by one or two paradoxes to see how they seemed collectively. Also that he considered a paradox from the older meaning of the word, as something which is apart from current opinion, either in subject matter or in conclusion. The value of De Morgan's work has been decidedly enhanced by Mr. Smith's skilful editing. The "Budget" is reprinted with the addition of material originally contributed to the *Athenæum*.

"Human Motives,"³ by James Jackson Putnam, is a hand-book designed to extend the knowledge of the discoveries affecting individual and social welfare, that have been made recently through psychological research. A discussion and analysis of our impulses and motives,—their secret sources, how far we may trust them, and their effect upon our characters.

SIGNIFICANT NOVELS

SIR GILBERT PARKER says that his latest novel, "The Money Master,"⁴ is the best of all his works. The reader will agree with the author's estimate, for beyond question the finest characterization he has given in any novel is that of the dominant character in "The Money Master,"—the inimitable Jean Jacques Barbille, miller, money master and philosopher. The book relates the story of Jean Jacques' life, of his labors, ambitions, loves, and failures. While he was still a youth, he found a little dun-colored book, "Meditations in Philosophy," and thereafter he met every misfortune with an avowal of faith,—"*Moi,—je suis philosophe.*" Jean Jacques loses everything he holds dear; life strips him of fortune, friends, of love, of his only child: Life has its way with him and he does not say at the end that he is a philosopher, for philosophy lies in his heart, not upon his tongue. Let him put the matter in his own words,—"*Me,—I am a man who has been a long journey with a pack on his back, and has got back home again.*" In other words Jean Jacques finds the reward,—of his own soul. The scene of the novel is the French hamlet of Vilray, in the Province of Quebec.

Mr. H. G. Wells' last novel, "The Research Magnificent,"⁵ synthesizes the life of the right-minded human being into a single adventure,—the pursuit of moral beauty. To illustrate this adventure he takes a young Englishman of good family, vitalizes him with an idea, which is the necessity of living life thoroughly and nobly,—and sends him questing to the ends of the earth after the "Aristocracy of Nobility." William Benham, the young man, sees that life must somehow be made splendid and worth while. He cannot believe that the stupidity of the present scheme of life is to continue. What does all the labor of living mean, when men must go on dying like ants in quarrels not of their making, where there are faults on both sides and the issues are obscured. Of what use is it to live if nobility is not the end and the reward of our efforts? Benham forsakes the illusions of material happiness. He forsakes every human being who will not cleave to his idea, and goes up and down the world searching in every condition of life, in every class of society, analyzing, dissecting, hoping, believing. He passes from us, an ineffectual sacrifice to his research, dying as nobly as he has lived, with the Messianic vision possessing his soul.

"The Research Magnificent" is a great novel. There are three major reasons why it is "great":

¹ Mithraism. By W. J. Phythian-Adams. Open Court Publishing Co. 95 pp. 40 cents.

² A Budget of Paradoxes. 2 Vols. By Augustus De Morgan. The Open Court Publishing Co. 1000 pp. \$3.50.

³ Human Motives. By James Jackson Putnam. Little, Brown. 179 pp. \$1.

⁴ The Money Master. By Gilbert Parker. Harpers. 360 pp. \$1.35.

⁵ The Research Magnificent. H. G. Wells. Macmillan. 460 pp. \$1.50.

Mr. Wells shows us the soul of a man reflected from the troubled waters of modern life; he arraigns with poise and seriousness, the foul reek of national and individual self-seeking that has brought about the present war; and he raises a light in the darkness,—a clear burning,—the hope of a spiritual regeneration that shall give the world remission of its sins.

"Violette of Père Lachaise,"¹ by Anna Strunsky Walling, is the biography of a young girl, a "subjective biography" which embodies the author's philosophy of love, revolution, idealism, and democracy. Violette lived on the edge of the great cemetery with her grandfather, a florist, who sold flowers to the people who came to visit the graves. She becomes a successful actress, and finds freedom in the abdication of her own personality to the forces of love and life. Vio-

lette is unique; she is the forerunner of a race of women who shall realize freedom as their birthright and be conscious of their relationship to the universe. The style is rarely beautiful—pellucid, and of admirable simplicity.

"The Death of Ivan Ilyitch"² and five other short stories by the late Count Leo Tolstoy have been rendered into English by Constance Garnett. The five other stories are "Family Happiness," "Polikushka," "Two Hussars," "The Snow-storm," and "Three Deaths." They are realistic tales of incidents in the lives of the Russian people that reveal the slumbering intensity, the dynamic urge that characterizes a race barely awakened to the possibilities of its development. Mrs. Garnett has been praised for the accuracy and the literary quality of her translations. They are made directly from the Russian text.

THE DRAMA AND POETRY

MR. BARRETT CLARK continues his admirable series of books on the drama in a new volume, "Contemporary French Dramatists,"³ which contains a study of the Free Theater; of Cúrel, Bernstein, Hervieu, Porto-Riche, Donnay and others. Mr. Clark does his work well; he has the gift of imparting information without losing a certain beauty of literary structure; and his comment and criticism shape the broad highroads of dramatic progress. He is the author of "The Continental Drama of To-day," "The British and American Drama of To-day," and the translation of "Four Plays of the Free Theater."

"The Case of the American Drama,"⁴ by Thomas Dickinson, presents a thoughtful, scholarly discussion of the tendencies and the development of American drama. Professor Dickinson looks forward to an American Theater, perhaps neither endowed, experimental, nor subsidized, but "appropriate to the event." He discusses at some length the significance of the Pageant and Festival movement and thinks it hopeful that our remade American Drama is beginning out of doors.

Houston Stewart Chamberlain sifts all the theorizing about the art of Richard Wagner in a most illuminating volume, "The Wagnerian Drama."⁵ He explains the Wagner music-dramas in a manner that approximates their hidden truth, and shows their philosophy as an outgrowth of the Schopenhauer doctrine. Mr. Chamberlain makes it quite clear that their object was to reveal the life of the inner man,—to teach the world that to express what is highest and best the "complete man" must come into action.

Guilhelm and Seremonda, the chief characters of William Lindsay's drama, "The Red Wine of

Roussillon,"⁶ are the eternal lovers of the world who appear under various names in the masterpieces of romantic literature. They play their parts in this book in the atmosphere of medieval France. The characterization is excellent; the play as a whole highly poetic, heroic, and beautiful.

The best poetical work of Charlotte, Emily, Anne, and Branwell Brontë has been selected and edited, with a sympathetic introduction, by Arthur C. Benson.⁷ A peculiar melancholy charm hangs around the literary compositions of this solitary family. Emily's genius, so long hidden, has gradually over-shadowed the weaker, more popular work of Charlotte. She was somewhat of a recluse like our own Emily Dickinson, and wrote poetry which, if less profound, was overflowing with native grace and a sheer unstudied music that no faults of technique can diminish. In the poems of Emily Brontë, and in her one novel, "Wuthering Heights," there is the incorruptible vision that characterizes true genius. Charlotte's poetry is metrically correct, but artificial; Anne's lovely in spots, but stereotyped. The eight poems of Branwell Brontë reveal a gift akin to that of Emily. This volume is illustrated with reproductions of portraits of the Brontë sisters painted by Branwell, and with facsimiles of Emily's script.

The "James Whitcomb Riley Reader"⁸ is published for children. Many grown-ups will want it, as the editor, Charity Dye, has gathered all the beautiful songs of childhood written by the good Hoosier poet into a most attractive volume. The book is delightfully illustrated by Ethel Franklin Betts.

"The Silk-Hat Soldier and Other Poems,"⁹ a slim little book with a gay wrapper, is offered by Mr. Le Gallienne, the sales profits to be donated to the Belgian Relief Fund.

¹ Violette of Pere Lachaise. By Anna Strunsky Walling. Stokes. 198 pp. \$1.

² The Death of Ivan Ilyitch and Other Stories. By Leo Tolstoy. Translated by C. Garnett. John Lane. 362 pp. \$1.35.

³ Contemporary French Dramatists. By Barrett H. Clark. Stewart Kidd. 225 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ The Case of the American Drama. By Thomas Dickinson. Houghton, Mifflin. 223 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ The Wagnerian Drama. By Houston Stewart Chamberlain. John Lane. 240 pp. \$1.35.

⁶ The Red Wine of Roussillon. By William Lindsay. Houghton, Mifflin. 174 pp. \$1.25.

⁷ Brontë Poems. Edited by Arthur C. Benson. Putnam. 390 pp. \$2.

⁸ The Riley Reader. Edited by Charity Dye. Bobbs-Merrill. 116 pp., ill.

⁹ The Silk-Hat Soldier. By Richard Le Gallienne. John Lane. 32 pp. 50 cents.

ART AND LITERATURE

MR. JAMES HUNEKER'S new book, "Ivory Apes and Peacocks,"¹ gives a survey of the field of modern art movements in a series of sketches of men who are very much in the public eye at present. It will give the reader a better idea of the latest developments in literature, painting, music and the drama than any other book he may select from the autumn publications. The first two essays, "The Genius of Joseph Conrad" and "A Visit to Walt Whitman," seem to miss the acute focus of Mr. Hunecker's unique critical powers; but in the papers on Frank Wedekind, Arnold Schoenberg, Modeste Moussorgsky, Dostoevsky, and Tolstoy, in "The Melancholy of Masterpiece," "The Buffoon of the New Eternities; Jules Laforgue," and "Masters of Hallucination," you find his rare mastery of atmosphere and the glitter of his sword-play with words. The book ends with a satirical bit of comment on "Three Disagreeable Girls." They are Ibsen's Hedda Gabler; George Moore's Mired Lawrence; and Mrs. Wharton's Undine Spragg. Mr. Hunecker's undisguised stab at modern femininity is his suggestion by way of a quotation from Grant Allen, that at least one of these disagreeable m'nxes is nothing more nor

less than the girl men take down to dinner nineteen times out of twenty.

Mr. Frank Brangwyn has for many years been associated with paintings and etchings of bridges. Walter Shaw Sparrow, whose interest in Mr. Brangwyn's art is well known, has collaborated with him in the production of a magnificent volume, "A Book of Bridges."² It is more than a study of nearly all the famous and beautiful bridges in the world; it is a history of the evolution of life during the last thousand years expressed in terms of bridge-building. It contains the philosophy of a pontist, who, taking a lesson from bridges built by men, shapes the Great Bridge, that joins its piers with the rainbow arch over which heroes pass to Valhalla. The book was not completed until after the War had broken out, therefore, Mr. Sparrow has been able to illustrate by actual events, his contention that fortified bridges are of immense military importance. He proceeds from a study of bridges and roads, to a consideration of bridges as a mimicry of nature; then to the Roman, European, Persian, and Chinese bridges. The volume is copiously illustrated with beautiful color plates and numerous drawings in black and white.

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Books Relating to the War

With the Russian Army. By Robert R. McCormick. Macmillan. 306 pp., ill. \$2.

Mr. McCormick, whose father had been American Ambassador to Russia, enjoyed unusual facilities for visiting the Russian front and observing actual warfare. Probably no one outside of Russian official circles has had such privileges. This account of his experience is well written and illustrated with maps, charts, and photographs.

Germany's Violations of the Laws of War. 1914-15. Translated by J. O. P. Bland. Putnam. 346 pp., ill. \$2.

This volume was compiled under the auspices of the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It has been translated into English by J. O. P. Bland. Many facsimiles of official documents are presented in connection with the text.

The Spirit of England. By G. W. E. Russell. Dutton. 304 pp. \$1.75.

Interesting chapters by an English statesman on England in wartime.

The Bowmen. By Arthur Machen. Putnam. 77 pp. 75 cents.

¹ Ivory Apes and Peacocks. By James Hunecker. Scribners. 328 pp. \$1.50.

² A Book of Bridges. By Frank Brangwyn, A.R.A. Text by W. Shaw Sparrow. John Lane. 415 pp., ill. \$6.

Fighting in the Clouds for France. By Colonel James Fiske. Akron, Ohio: Saalfeld Publishing Company. 255 pp., ill. 50 cents.

War in Europe. By Clarence Darrow. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 31 pp. 10 cents (paper).

Who Wanted War? By E. Durkheim and E. Denis. Librairie Armand Colin, 103 Boulevard Saint-Michel, Paris. 62 pp. (paper).

Origines de la Guerre de 1914. By Daniel Bellet. Librairie Plon, 8, rue Garancière, Paris. 55 pp. (paper).

L'Allemagne et la Guerre Européenne. By Albert Sauveur. Blond et Gay, 7 Place Saint-Sulpice, Paris. 70 pp. (paper).

War from the German-American Viewpoint. By Rev. S. G. VonBosse. Delaware: Star Publishing Co. 24 pp. (paper).

Germany in Her Battle for Existence. By Rev. George von Bosse. Delaware: Graf & Breuninger Print. 36 pp. (paper).

The Great War in the Far East. By Thomas F. Millard. 109 pp. (paper).

The German Enigma. By Georges Bourdon. London: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd. 357 pp. \$1.25.

An investigation into Franco-German relations before the war, conducted by one of the ablest of French publicists on behalf of the Parisian newspaper, *Figaro*.

Aeroplanes and Dirigibles of War. By Frederick A. Talbot. Lippincott. 283 pp. \$1.25.

Mr. Frederick A. Talbot, who has written interestingly on lighthouses, steamships, railroading and moving pictures, has prepared a volume on "Aeroplanes and Dirigibles of War." Beginning with balloons, the author describes the different types of airships, including the Zeppelin and its history, treating in subsequent chapters of the aerial equipment of the belligerent nations, and the various types of aeroplanes employed. A goodly section of the book is devoted to a detailed account of the airman's work, such as scouting and the directing of artillery fire, as well as to the missiles employed by the airmen and the guns invented to bring him down. Many illustrations increase the value of this interesting treatise on aviation in war.

Travel, Description, Adventure

Constantinople, Old and New. By H. G. Dwight. Scribners. 566 pp. ill. \$5.

The most complete and accurate description in English of ancient and modern Constantinople. The author, who is the son of the veteran missionary, Dr. Henry O. Dwight, knows his Constantinople as well as Will Irwin knows his San Francisco. In this volume he is writing of a city in transition, just as Irwin in writing of San Francisco at the time of the great fire described "The City That Was." "Constantinople" is profusely illustrated and altogether is a splendid specimen of modern book-making.

Peeps Into Picardy. By W. D. Crawford and E. and E. A. Manton. Lippincott, 194 pp. ill. \$1.

A good, terse description of the architectural monuments to be found in this ancient French province. The illustrations are from photographs taken by the authors.

Mediterranean Winter Resorts. By Reynolds Ball. Dutton. 635 pp. \$1.75.

In this new edition (revised and in part rewritten) of a standard guide book, chapters on a new winter resort, Tunis, and on Genoa have been added for the benefit of such Americans as may venture into that part of the world.

Australian Byways. By Norman Duncan. Harper. 294 pp. ill. \$1.75.

An account of the author's journey to the frontiers of Australian civilization—regions to which comparatively few Americans have penetrated. The illustrations are supplied by George Harding.

In Vacation America. By Harrison Rhodes. Harpers. 131 pp. ill. \$1.50.

Vacation manners and customs, winter and summer, in every portion of the United States are described in this little book. Its suggestions are

the more useful because of the fact that many Americans, deprived of their customary vacations in Europe, are now studying for the first time the holiday possibilities of their own country and learning how to utilize them.

Letters on an Elk Hunt. By Elinore Pruitt Stewart. Houghton Mifflin. 162 pp. ill. \$1.

These letters continue the experiences of "A Woman Homesteader," which were entertainingly set forth in the pages of the *Atlantic Monthly* and later embodied in a book. The little volume before describes the woman homesteader's adventures through a journey of 300 miles to the hunting reserve and the exciting days of the hunt. The charm of style which made the first collection of letters one of the most popular books of last year is nowhere lacking in the present work.

Bermuda. The Bermuda Government. 64 pp. ill.

The Bermuda Trade Development Board has issued this guide-book for the benefit of prospective tourists. It contains excellent photographs of Bermuda scenery, and a useful map of the Islands. Copies of the book may be procured free on application to the Bermuda Government Agent, care of E. F. Darrell & Co., 2 Broadway, New York City.

Aloha Guide. By F. Schnack. Honolulu Star Bulletin. 202 pp. ill. 85 cents.

This little volume is not only a guide-book of Honolulu and the Hawaiian Islands, but is a reference manual of the territory of Hawaii, brought well up to date, illustrated and indexed.

First Through the Grand Canyon. By Major J. W. Powell. Outing Adventure Library. 320 pp. \$1.

The thrilling story of Major Powell's exploration of the Grand Canyon of the Colorado,—the first known descent of that river by boat,—has been buried for many years in government documents. It is now fittingly presented in the "Outing Adventure Library," edited by Horace Kephart, who characterizes Major Powell's exploit as "one of the most hazardous adventures in the history of exploration."

Adrift in the Arctic Ice Pack. By Elisha Kent Kane, M.D. Outing Adventure Library. 402 pp. \$1.

Another classic in the annals of American adventure is the record of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane's relief expedition which sailed from New York in the spring of 1849 in search of Sir John Franklin. The expedition was caught in the ice of Lancaster Sound and spent the entire winter frozen fast in the ice pack. Dr. Kane's account of that winter's experiences is regarded as the most vivid and accurate description of ship life during an Arctic winter that has ever been written.

Adventures in Africa. By J. B. Thornhill. Dutton. 330 pp. \$3.50.

This is a record of pioneer life in the Congo-Zambezi water-shed. The book is chiefly concerned with Katanga, a part of the Congo State which since 1908 has been administered as a Belgian colony. There is also a chapter on the sys-

tem or indentured labor in the Portuguese Territory of Angola.

Walks About Washington.. By Francis E. Leupp & Lester G. Hornby. Little, Brown. 291 pp. ill. \$3.

Mr. Leupp's long residence in Washington and his intimate knowledge of famous personages of both the past and present qualify him to write a most entertaining series of reminiscences associated with the national capital. A large amount of excellent anecdotal material is utilized in this book, for which drawings of famous Washington buildings were furnished by Lester G. Hornby.

Mount Vernon, The Home of Washington. By J. E. Jones. Chapple. 44 pp. ill. \$1.

Impressions produced by a visit to that shrine on the Potomac to which thousands of Americans make pilgrimage every year are set forth in this little book, which gives details concerning the present condition of the Mt. Vernon estate.

Stately Homes of California. By Porter Garnett. Little, Brown. 95 pp. ill.

Text and pictures descriptive of twelve of the finest private residences in the Golden State.

Old English Mansions. By C. J. Richardson and others. Lane. ill. \$3.

A series of plates with descriptive letter-press.

The Real Argentine. By J. A. Hammerton. Dodd, Mead. 453 pp. ill. \$2.50.

The distinctive feature of this book is its picture of social life in the Argentine and Uruguay. The author gives the impressions gained by a year's residence.

Official Guide to Eastern Asia. Vol I, Manchuria and Chosen, 436 pp.; Vol. II, southwestern Japan, 574 pp.; Vol. III, Northeastern Japan, 498 pp.; Vol. IV, China, 538 pp., ill. By Imperial Japanese Government Railways.

The publication of this work gives to English and American travelers what they have long desired, an authoritative, accurate guide to the countries of the Far East. The numerous maps that accompany these volumes are based on the best available material and were engraved on copper plate. It is announced that a fifth volume, to be devoted to the East Indies, is now in the course of preparation.

Brittany With Bergere. By W. M. E. Whitelock. Richard Badger. 152 pp. \$1.50, ill.

A piquant narration of adventures in little-visited parts of Brittany. Capital illustrations in black and white.

History

History of Germany in the Nineteenth Century. By Heinrich von Treitschke. McBride. 708 pp. \$3.25.

The first of a series of six volumes in which will be presented, for the first time in English, the complete historical work of one of the most brilliant of Germany's historians. The translation

is the work of Eden and Cedar Hall, and an introduction is supplied by William Harbutt Dawson, author of "The Evolution of Modern Germany."

History of the Norwegian People. By G. Jerset. Macmillan. 2 vols. 1133 pp. \$8.

A subject with which most Americans, even those who regard themselves as well-read, are quite unfamiliar is treated in the two-volume "History of the Norwegian People" by Professor Gnut Jerset, of Luther College, Decorah, Iowa. Americans of Norwegian descent now have an opportunity to read in English a scholarly and authentic record of the home-land of their ancestors.

Attila and the Huns. By Edward Hutton. Dutton, 228 pp. \$2.

A popular account of the ravages during the fifth century of the barbarian leader who some years ago was singled out by William the Second of Germany as the patron saint of modern German militarism.

Founding of a Nation. By Frank M. Gregg. 2 vols. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co. 686 pp. ill. \$7.50.

In this two-volume work the story of the Pilgrim Fathers and the beginning of American democracy is told in the form of a romance in which the details are made to conform as strictly as possible to historical accuracy.

Political History of Slavery in the United States. By James Z. George. Neale. 352 pp. ill. \$3.

The history of slavery and of Southern reconstruction, as interpreted by the late United States Senator George, of Mississippi, with the foreword and sketch of the author's life by William H. Leavell, and a preface by Professor John Bassett Moore. Although there are many histories of American slavery in existence, comparatively few represent, as this does, the Southern viewpoint.

Constitutional History of the State of New York. By J. Hampden Dougherty. Neale. 408 pp. \$3.

A second edition of this excellent book is made especially timely by the work of the New York State Constitutional Convention, which is to be submitted to the voters of the State for ratification this month.

New York's Part in History. By Sherman Williams. Appleton. 391 pp. ill. \$2.50.

This volume is contributed by a patriotic citizen of the Empire State who believes that undue emphasis has been placed upon certain episodes in New England history, to the neglect of matters equally important in the history of New York. It is a book that may profitably be used as supplementary reading by history classes in New York schools.

History of the Savings Banks Association of the State of New York. By Frederic B. Stevens. Doubleday, Page. 703 pp. ill. \$5.

The achievements of twenty years in the his-

tory of the Savings Banks Association of New York State are set forth in this volume. The importance of the savings-bank interest in New York State may be inferred from the fact that these banks now boast of more than three million depositors.

Old Roads from the Heart of New York.

By Sarah Comstock. Putnam. 401 pp. ill. \$2.50.

Taking New York City as a center, Miss Comstock traces out numerous journeys of historic interest, using those highways which most nearly correspond with the highways of other days. By this method a good range of historical material is brought into focus, and the reader is invested for the time being with the atmosphere of another century.

Minnesota Historical Society Collections.

Vol. XV. Minnesota Historical Society, St. Paul. 872 pp. \$2.50.

The current volume of the Minnesota Historical Collections includes accounts of railroad-building in the State, narratives of the Sioux War of 1862, and many reminiscences and memorial sketches of pioneers.

Economic Origins of Jeffersonian Democracy.

By Charles A. Beard. Macmillan. 474 pp.

Professor Beard is one of the ablest of the school of American historians who are rewriting our national history along economic lines. The present volume is an account of the conflict between capitalism and democracy in the first decade of our political history under the Constitution.

Heroic Deeds of American Sailors.

By Albert F. Blaisdell & Francis K. Ball. Little, Brown. 182 pp. ill. 70 cents.

This little book, intended for young people between the ages of eleven and fifteen, is also well fitted for collateral reading, in connection with school text-books on American history. Besides those naval heroes whose exploits have been related in other books of this class, it gives attention to MacDonough, the victor of Plattsburg; young Cushing, of *Albatross* fame in the Civil War, and other plucky American sailors.

The Road to Glory.

By E. Alexander Powell. Scribners. 323 pp. ill. \$1.50.

This volume narrates the deeds of that group of adventurers who are usually classed as "soldiers of fortune" in distinction from true patriots. Many of the figures who are made to live again in Mr. Powell's pages have been ignored by American historians; although the exploits in which they were engaged were frequently well worthy of chronicling.

A History of French Public Law.

By J. Brissaud. Little Brown. 581 pp. \$4.50.

The ninth volume of "The Continental Legal Series," published under the auspices of the Association of American Law Schools. The translation from the French is by Professor James W. Garner, of the University of Illinois, and there are two introductions to the volume, one by Harold E. Hazeltine, of Cambridge University, and another by Professor W. W. Willoughby, of Johns Hopkins.

Biography

Isabel of Castile. By Irene L. Plunket. Putnam. 432 pp. ill. \$2.50.

The life of the Spanish Queen, who as patroness of Columbus contributed to the discovery of a new world, is also a history of Spain in the latter half of the fifteenth century, the golden period of that nation's development. Isabel's reign was coincident with the rise of Spain to a foremost place among the world-powers of that day.

A King's Favorite: Madame Du Barry and Her Times. By Claude Saint-André. McBride. 338 pp. ill. \$3.50.

This biography of Madam Du Barry is based on documentary materials, many of which have been hitherto unpublished. M. Saint-André has brought out fresh facts relating to the French exiles in England who were assisted more than once by Madame Du Barry.

Frederick the Great and His Seven Years' War. By Ronald A. Hall. Dutton. 240 pp. \$1.50.

This book suggests a certain parallelism between the Seven Years' War and the Great War now in progress. Treating Frederick the Great as typically Prussian, the author makes use of his career to illustrate for the benefit of the English public "the surreptitious and tenacious character of our enemies."

The Secret Memoirs of Count Tadasu Hayashi. By A. M. Pooley, Putnam. 331 pp. ill. \$2.50.

The memoirs of this veteran Japanese diplomat review several of the principal achievements in modern Japanese diplomacy,—notably the Anglo-Japanese alliance, the Russo-Japanese convention of 1907, and the American-Japanese agreement of 1908.

The Life of Robert Louis Stevenson. By Graham Balfour. Scribners. 364 pp. ill. \$2.

This abridgement contains all the essential material that appeared in the original edition of the work, and is illustrated with interesting portraits and drawings from photographs.

Benjamin Franklin. By E. Lawrence Dudley. Macmillan. 232 pp. ill. 50 cents.

Without attempting to write anything new about so well-known and historical a character as Franklin, Mr. Dudley has availed himself of the material contained in such works as Ford's "The Many-Sided Franklin," Fisher's "The True Benjamin Franklin," and the famous and excellent "Autobiography."

William Penn. By Rupert Sargent Holland. Macmillan. 166 pp. ill. 50 cents.

A terse and readable summary of one of the most interesting characters in American colonial history.

Alaska Days with John Muir. By S. Hall Young. Revell. 266 pp. ill. \$1.

The author of this little volume accompanied John Muir, the famous explorer and naturalist,

on some of his journeys through what were in those days (more than thirty years ago) the unexplored mountain and glacier region of Alaska. Intimate association with Muir on those trips has enabled the author to draw a most entertaining pen picture of the great naturalist.

The Story of Yone Noguchi Told by Himself. Jacobs. 255 pp. ill. \$1.50.

This book tells the experiences of a Japanese in California, Chicago, and London, and incidentally gives expression in English to more or less Japanese folk-lore.

Kentucky in American Letters. By John Wilson Townsend. 2 vols. Torch Press. 762 pp. \$7.

These two volumes make an elaborate presentation of the important part played by Kentuckians in the development of our literature. There are biographical sketches with extracts from the best-known writings of nearly 200 men and women, natives of Kentucky, whose writings in prose and poetry have enriched American letters.

My Childhood. By Maxim Gorky. Century. 374 pp. \$2.

This bit of autobiography is to be commended not merely as a record of a great writer's personal history, but still more as a contribution to our knowledge of Russian peasant life of which it gives us an even more intimate picture than is to be found in modern Russian fiction.

George Washington, Farmer. By Paul Lealand Haworth. Bobbs, Merrill. 336 pp. ill. \$1.50.

Although any attempt to write a really new life of Washington might be fairly regarded as a forlorn hope, the scheme conceived by Mr. Haworth of giving an account of the farming activities of the Father of His Country has proved in the result to be altogether feasible and the material here assembled is not only interesting in itself but throws much light on the farming conditions of the region and period in which Washington lived.

Tad And His Father. By F. Lauriston Bulard. Little, Brown. 102 pp. 50 cents.

"Tad and His Father" is a tribute to the strong bond that existed between President Lincoln and the little son he affectionately called "Tadpole." The author, Mr. F. Lauriston Bulard, presents a hitherto unelaborated phase of intimate life in the White House during the years of the Civil War, with several fine word-pictures of the mischievous lad,—"jolly, round-faced, cheeks glowing, gray eyes flashing, dark hair flying." There seems no doubt that Tad was a spoiled young rascal, for he drove his team of goats into the great East Room, hammered nails into the mahogany desk used by John Hay, and disregarded law and order in general. But in spite of his mischief he was his father's solace during the anxious years when the fate of a nation hung in the balance; and it was Tad who voiced a nation's cry of distress when the murdered President was borne home from the house across the way from Ford's Theater, to lie in state in the Executive Mansion. He ran to

Gideon Welles, the Secretary of the Navy, crying: "Oh, Mr. Welles, who killed my papa, and why did he have to die?"

Health Manuals

Colon Hygiene. By J. H. Kellogg, M.D. Good Health Publishing Co. 393 pp. \$2.

"Colon Hygiene" is devoted to the physiology of the colon. Intestinal toxemia, indigestion, neurasthenia, colitis, insomnia, and a multitude of other maladies are often completely cured and old age retarded by a little daily attention to colon hygiene. Many diseases are filth diseases pure and simple. Much of the filth that enters the blood enters by way of putrefying waste lodged in the colon.

Neurasthenia. By J. H. Kellogg, M.D. Good Health Publishing Co. 339 pp. \$2.

"Neurasthenia" offers practical suggestions to enable the sufferer to help himself out of misery. Dr. Kellogg has been superintendent of the Battle Creek Sanitarium for over forty years. He is one of the leading exponents of preventive medicine. His various books are valuable for the home library in that they are of great service to the establishing of permanent and abounding health through the exercise of intelligence and common sense, plus a few simple medical agents.

Sociology and Economics

Socialized Germany. By Frederic C. Howe. Scribner's. 342 pp. \$1.50.

Dr. Howe, whose article on immigration after the war appears on another page of this REVIEW, has been a careful student of German life for many years. The present volume, which describes the various social and economic activities of the German imperial and local governments, is intended not only to give some explanation of Germany's marvelous efficiency, but primarily to suggest "a new kind of social statesmanship which our own as well as other countries must take into consideration if they are to be prepared to meet the Germany which in victory or defeat emerges from the war." Germany's regulation of commerce, development of natural resources, care for the unemployed, insurance and pensions, education, sanitation and city-building are pictured for the benefit of the American reader.

Imperial Germany and the Industrial Revolution. By Thorstein Veblen. Macmillan. 324 pp. \$1.50.

An attempt to explain Germany's industrial advance and efficiency by reference to natural causes. Much space is also given to an exposition of England's industrial situation for purposes of comparison.

Regulation of Railroads and Public Utilities in Wisconsin. By Fred L. Holmes. Appleton. 375 pp. \$2.

A detailed account of ten years' progress in railroad and public-utility regulation by a State commission that was one of the pioneers in its field and has won over by its practical achievements the coördination of many of the corporations that are under its supervision.

FINANCIAL NEWS

1.—THE ANGLO-FRENCH LOAN FROM THE INVESTOR'S VIEWPOINT

BECAUSE of its proportions, the appeal that will be made to every investor in the United States to participate in it, and from the standpoint of the loan as a political and economic factor it has been thought advisable this month to discuss from several points of view the so-called Anglo-French \$500,000,000 5 per cent. bond issue.

In its investment policy the United States as a nation has been called provincial. It was the provincialism, however, of one who has to look after his own requirements before interesting himself and his capital in the enterprises of his neighbors. During the Boer War American bankers bought some \$200,000,000 of British war-loan bonds. Money here at that time was quite cheap and the investment from a banking angle was profitable. When the bonds sold at a premium they were offered back to English investors. Almost none remain here. The public did not subscribe and was not urged to do so. A few years later during the Russo-Japanese War occurred the first liberal public participation in a foreign loan ever recorded in American financial history. The demand was genuine and due to a combination of desire for the high yield which the Japanese 4s and 4½s gave as well as to the wish to aid the little empire that was fighting against the Russian menace. Just as soon, however, as these issues had gone a few points above their original price they began to be exported. Germany took a great many. By a curious development in political affairs the same bonds that went from the United States to Germany in 1906 and 1907 are now being bought back at prices from 15 to 20 points per bond lower than they were sold. The American subscription to the Japanese war loans was \$130,000,000. Possibly one-tenth of this amount has been repurchased.

England, first of all, then France, Germany, Holland, and Switzerland in their order, have for years been creditor nations. They have possessed a surplus for overseas investment. It is estimated that Great Britain has placed enough capital in other lands to produce an annual income of \$850,000,000. French foreign investments are reck-

oned at \$8,000,000,000, of which half has been taken up since 1902. At the beginning of the war the holdings of Europe in American railways, manufacturing concerns, public utilities, etc., was variously stated as from \$4,000,000,000 to \$5,000,000,000. In the past twelve months fully \$1,000,000,000 of these securities have been returned and are now locked in the vaults of banks and private investors throughout this country.

This gives a background for the investment situation that faced the Anglo-French Commission when its members landed in New York in September and opened negotiations for a loan whose original figure was placed at \$1,000,000,000. The foreign delegation were insistent on two points, viz., that no higher cost than 5 per cent. would be paid for capital and that the loan would not be a secured one. On both points they finally capitulated; for the rate, while 5 per cent., is at a price of 96 to the bankers here and is free from all tax and the loan is preferred over all existing loans on the revenues and taxable properties of the British and French governments.

A very few persons will invest in this loan for reasons of patriotism or sentiment. To them the price or rate is of little consequence. Pro-Germans will "bear" it also from political or sentimental bias. The course of the loan, however, will be determined not by either of these elements, but by the individual with \$100 or \$1,000,000 to invest only as the loan, *per se*, has merit and can show cause for appeal on a business basis. In other words, we may say that the loan must stand or fall on the same qualities that affect the appraisal of a railroad bond or the bond of a high-grade industrial corporation.

Such bonds would take their rank from certain established measurements. Among them are the margin of income of the debtor over his interest requirements, the value of lands, buildings, materials, equipment, etc., underlying the mortgage, the record of a term of years for surplus earnings, and the possibility of economic changes in the territory of the debtor that might disturb the earning power devoted to the bond.

When one starts to apply this sort of yardstick to the Anglo-French loan it seems an excess of caution. We find that the British Government has never defaulted on an obligation and that the only stain on the credit of France came in the repudiation following the French Revolution and known in financial history as the incident of the assignats. The income of the people of Great Britain subject to tax was, in 1914, \$5,800,000,000. Before the war this taxable income was twice the total debt of the Empire. The total income, however, was over \$12,000,000,000. The carrying charge of this debt was under 1 per cent. of total income. Formerly the minimum of the taxable income in Great Britain was \$800. The latest ruling involves the individual whose income is only \$650, which materially increases the national revenue. Going into the past it is found that during the Napoleonic wars England piled up a debt of \$4,340,000,000, on which the service was equivalent to 11 per cent. of the total income of the nation. This debt was reduced and even faster than it was written off did the wealth of the country increase. Englishmen of a century ago were as pessimistic over the future of British credit as some of them are to-day, though the real position of the British Empire did not develop or British wealth take first place among the nations of the earth until the fires of a war that devastated Europe had been passed through. The proposed loan is only six-tenths of 1 per cent. of the wealth of Great Britain and 1 per cent. of the wealth of France. If \$2,000,000,000 is a fair valuation of American securities still remaining in England and the average yield on these stocks and bonds is only 4 per cent., interest on the loan to be paid to American subscribers would be 30 per cent. of our annual remittance to this one country for one form of debt.

Having satisfied ourselves of the solvency and earning power of the debtor the question arises as to the ability of the United States to take up a foreign loan for half a billion dollars without dislocating existing investments and draining the banks of their funds.

Here again a formidable array of statistics may be commanded to support the argument that the purchasing power of the United States is many times in excess of the loan itself. For instance, we have already this year taken from Europe in gold more than half the sum of the loan. The recent surplus reserves of the Clearing House institutions in New York city were 40 per cent. of the loan. The new wealth created on the farms

this year exceeded that of last year by about twice the sum of the loan. Only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of total bank deposits would be called on to cover the loan. The annual increase in the wealth of the United States is ten to a dozen times the amount of the loan.

Having *viséd* the security and being in possession of ample funds to buy, what, then, can be the objection to a liberal participation? Surely not the interest yield. At the beginning of the war England borrowed on $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. notes. Last summer she had to raise the interest rate to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Germany has been selling long-term 5 per cent. war bonds between $97\frac{1}{2}$ and 99. French internal loans have been on about a 5 per cent. basis. But the American investor is given the privilege of subscribing at the equivalent of $96\frac{1}{4}$ for a 5 per cent. loan maturing in five years, which amounts to a yield of 5.85 per cent. and he may at the end of the five years, or in 1920, convert his temporary certificates of British and French indebtedness into a 25-year $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. bond of governments whose $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 per cent. obligations normally sell on a 3 to a $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. basis. So a $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. bond might be expected to command a premium of 10 to 15 points.

So much for the selling side of the bond. The investor may now ask: Would you recommend a person to sell any part of his present domestic investments to subscribe to the loan or to withdraw money from savings banks or from time deposit to make a participation in the new foreign issue?

It seems to us that the individual must in this case make his own choice. It is an occasion when, given the facts concerning the borrowers, his judgment must govern his action. It is obvious that if the war is to continue for a year or two longer the cost, already stupendous, will exceed all former calculations. It is claimed that the British Empire can, without injuring its credit, raise its debt structure to \$40,000,000,000. No borrower, however, can go on making demands of the money market without to some extent depreciating the value of his outstanding obligations. It is quite probable that within six months the joint powers will again be sounding the American market for loans. At the present moment the entrance of Bulgaria into the war and the neutrality of Greece and Roumania counterbalance the benefit to the Allies, from the standpoint of a borrower, of the advance on the western front early in the month. Looking at the situation passively and with an open mind as to the political aspects of the loan, it is perfectly plain that

a severe set-back this autumn, say the loss of all ground gained in the Dardanelles, would cause the bonds to sell at a discount,—possibly of several points. Contrawise, an important victory in France would push them forward to a premium.

Those who buy these 5 per cent. Anglo-French bonds must do so with open eyes and mind. The security is of the highest so far as collateral is concerned. The problems of the present phase of the war and those to develop after the war are the greatest that military geniuses and political economists ever had to

meet. Holders of the bonds will undoubtedly have many anxious moments. If they are willing to go through with this experience and not be frightened out of their bonds should they fall temporarily below the subscription price, we venture to predict that they will be paid off at par at maturity with an intermediate period of fair premium accrued. There is a speculative element in the purchase that the buyer must realize and discount before he enters his subscription. All large profit-making enterprises involve some degree of preliminary risk.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

NO. 672. A COMMON SOURCE OF PERPLEXITY AMONG INVESTORS OF LIMITED EXPERIENCE

My problem, briefly stated, is this: My salary will allow me a surplus of a few hundreds a year for investment. How can I invest this so as to yield the largest possible returns and get at the same time reasonable safety? I am a young man and have never had any previous experience in investing money.

Certain questions arise in my mind as I read through the advertisements in your magazine. I read, for example, of municipal bonds yielding 4 per cent., and again of real estate loans yielding 7 per cent., where the offering companies submit records of many years' business without a dollar lost for clients. Other investments are advertised at 5 and 6 per cent. In the face of the higher yields, how can 4 per cent. investments, for example, find any purchasers? Why do Government bonds yielding only from 2 to 4 per cent. find any sale? Could a person in my situation hope to find any investment that would yield 10 to 12 per cent. with reasonable safety of the principal invested?

The questions that have arisen in your mind regarding the wide range of interest rates on securities of different types and classes are common sources of perplexity among all investors at some stage of their experience. The matter is one that can be rather simply, although not briefly, explained. Various factors have to be taken into consideration in any undertaking to account for this variety of rates. It is important always to bear in mind the fact that to get the higher rates of yield on their capital, investors usually have to sacrifice something, but not necessarily either safety of principal or regularity of income. Among securities that are sponsored by reputable and experienced bankers, accustomed to use every means at their command to assure themselves of the dependability of the investments they offer to their clients, differences in yield are perhaps most commonly traceable to differences in the degree of convertibility, or to differences in conditions respecting the supply and demand of loanable funds in the localities in which the various securities have their origin.

For example, in the category of municipal bonds, you might find in the lists of a single banking house offerings of certain large and well-known municipalities, with bond issues of sufficient size to insure for them a broad distribution, and therefore a pretty ready market at all times, on which the average yield would not be over, say $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; and at the same time, at an average yield of say $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 per cent., other offerings of relatively small and perhaps little known municipalities with issues too limited in size to permit

of wide distribution, and therefore less readily convertible. In other words, in a case of this kind, the difference of 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in yield would measure the amount one would have to pay to get quicker convertibility,—an investment virtue which the requirements of many investors absolutely demand.

In the category of real estate investments, which, as a class, are perhaps the least readily convertible of all, differences in yield among securities having their origin in various parts of the country are most frequently traceable to differences in the relationship between the supply of and demand for loanable capital, again assuming, of course, the sponsorship in all cases of mortgage bankers who are not only able judges of intrinsic security, but who are in position to give their clients the best quality of the particular kind of service which is of so much importance in this field.

The foregoing merely suggests one or two of the general rules in accordance with which discrimination in the selection of investments may be governed. It is never safe to generalize too much in this respect. Every investment offering ought to be judged on its own peculiar merits, and in accordance with the investor's personal requirements.

The case of Government bonds,—by which we presume you mean United States Government bonds,—is somewhat different. Private investors have bought them to some extent in the past, more out of sentiment, we think, than anything else. Of course, one cannot imagine any investment intrinsically safer, but experience has proved there are a great many investments as safe for all practical purposes. But aside from that, as you may know, the principal market for our Government bonds has in the past been among the National Banks, because under the old banking law such bonds were the only things available to secure note circulation. For that reason the bonds sold on an income basis more or less arbitrarily fixed,—that is, one not governed, except in a negligible degree, by the operation of the law of investment supply and demand.

No, we do not believe the average man can reasonably expect to make his investments earn as much as 10 or 12 per cent. for him with safety. Capital invested in certain kinds of industry can be, and is made to earn that much, but only by the constant personal application by the investors themselves of expert industrial management.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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TERMS:—Issued monthly, 25 cents a number, \$3.00 a year in advance in the United States, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Cuba, Canada, Mexico, and the Philippines. Elsewhere, \$4.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second class matter under Act of Congress, March 3, 1879. Entered as Second Class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English Review of Reviews, which is edited and published in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 30 Irving Place, New York

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



Photograph by International News Service, New York

A BRITISH RED CROSS FIRST-AID HOSPITAL ON THE GALLIPOLI PENINSULA

THE red of the Geneva Cross on a white field, flying over a multitude of medical stations along the vast battle lines of Europe, will this year, as last, be more truly emblematic of the Christmas season and the succoring spirit of Christianity than the red of the customary holly berries. The Red Cross will remind us not only of the blood sacrifice of millions of soldiers, but of the patient fortitude and generous service of the host of brave men and women who are working heroically to relieve the suffering of the wounded.

In these first-aid stations, situated nearest the battle lines, the wounded soldier receives the first medical attention that can be given him out of reach of the enemy's fire. After treatment here, he is hurried further back to a base hospital for more thorough and careful attention.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LII

NEW YORK, DECEMBER, 1915

No. 6

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Another Christmas in Trench and Afield

When the war began it was declared throughout Germany that peace would be restored and the soldiers would be at home again in time to celebrate Christmas. Germany's three or four preceding wars had been very short. Several other modern wars on a large scale had also been decided in brief campaigns. But all of Germany's diplomatic and strategic program of the autumn of 1914 was frustrated. Christmas found the German army beaten back from the vicinity of Paris and intrenched for the winter on a defensive line that has, with some variation, been held ever since. A second Christmas now approaches, and it finds more men fighting than a year ago and no signs of an early conclusion of the war.

"Attrition" a Slow Process

The Allies now say frankly that they rely upon a great superiority of men and of resources to wear out and crush Germany, through a patient policy of attrition. Thus in our Civil War the North, using its sea power to blockade the South, and its vastly superior resources of men and supplies of every kind, wore out the Confederate armies and won complete victory only after a struggle of four years. It took the British Empire, with its almost incalculable resources, two and a half years to conquer by this same policy of attrition the two little Boer republics in South Africa, whose aggregate population was not as great as that of one of the larger manufacturing towns of England. Spain, in 1895, undertook to wear down the Cuban insurrection, and after three years, with 200,000 European soldiers on the island, the situation remained deadlocked, with the advantage rather on the side of the ragged guerrilla fighters of General Gomez. It looks, indeed, as if the British and Russian empires, supporting France and aided by Italy, with their superiority of population and resources,—and,

above all, with their mastery of the high seas, which enables them to use all neutral nations as accessory for purposes of supply,—could wear out Germany and Austria in the long run. But a courageous Liberal member of Parliament, Mr. Charles Trevelyan, declared last month on the floor of the House of Commons that this process would take six years, and that when Germany was duly crushed the victors would also be hopelessly ruined, in the economic sense.

Peace Prospects Gloomy

If England should put forth supreme effort in the coming year, and Russia should obtain sufficient equipment for her men, it seems to us that Germany would be brought to the pass of urgently seeking terms of peace well before the end of 1916. But if the Allies are not willing to consider terms that Germany and Austria could entertain as a basis for negotiations, it would further seem likely that the war might be prolonged for still another year,—making a total war period of three years. The prospect is a sad and painful one to all who have managed to keep from becoming hardened to the terrible facts and incidents of the struggle. As yet, the fighting governments are sustained by their long-suffering peoples. There is no urgent demand for peace. The spirit of hostility is so dominant in the warring nations that most of the women are willing to lose their husbands and sons rather than to open their minds to see that the war itself is victimizing the worthy families of all countries, who have no conceivable ground of racial or national enmity.

No United Effort for Peace

From the very first there has been lacking a clear and unified expression of the neutral nations in favor of humanity. There has been no official effort to secure either a harmony of neutral sentiment or a joint expression of



"WHO SAID PEACE?"

From the New York Evening Sun.

(The purpose of the cartoon is to show what seems to be the prevailing tone in England just now, when every suggestion of peace is treated with indignant scorn. But in Germany there is evidently less arrogance than a year ago, and a diminishing idea that Germany can take whatever she wants and dictate terms of peace to crushed and submissive enemies)

those who, being themselves at peace, desire to help the belligerents to reach an agreement. Ever since the message "Peace on earth, good will among men" expressed the spirit of the Christian propaganda, nineteen centuries ago, it has been unhappily true that the Christian nations themselves have been at war during by far the greater portion of the time. Many had believed that the political evolution of the nineteenth century would bring the principles of peace and good will into practical effect, and end the record of great wars early in the twentieth century. But the prospect now seems profoundly disheartening. Yet the normal interests that make for peace and good will are greater by far, in our generation, than the things that make for discord and strife.

Governments
Have
Failed

At the very beginning of this war we laid down the thesis in these pages that the chief reason for the conflict lay in the fact that governments do not fit the peoples who are subject to them. If there had been a political leaguering together of the nations, in harmony with the intellectual, commercial, artistic, and ethical solidarity of our modern world, this dastardly conflict would not have been possible. The methods of diplomacy have

brought deadly harm to the people. The alliances of nations, and their secret treaties and understandings, have been so many heinous conspiracies against human welfare. Imperial systems, whether of England, Germany, Russia, France, or any other power, under guidance and control of the permanent ruling classes, have been fraught with menace to the world at large. If there is to be peace in the world, with the retention of the scheme of a series of sovereign states, there must be an organization of these states for the common good; and it must be a stronger organization than any league or group of its constituent members. It would be an intolerable thing under our federation of States to have New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and one or two more in a secret league, as against some other group, or as against the independence and freedom of smaller States not protected by leagues or alliances.

We are publishing this month, from the pen of a gifted writer and thorough student, the most striking article, — and the best-informed, — on the present meaning of Great Britain's sea power that has appeared since the outbreak of the war. Until there is a high degree of security in the world for all the interests that the vast British navy is designed to protect, it would be idle to ask the ruling authorities of that country to relax their efforts to maintain naval preponderance. For the present, the British navy supplies in part the lack of a co-operative world patrol. But the rest of the world will not be willing permanently to accept the view that the oceans are to be navigated, whether in times of war or of peace, upon principles laid down by a single government. The oceans will have to be made free and neutral, under international control. An American navy, very strong in prospective development, can be used with good effect to this end.

Temporary
Need of
Self-defense

Until peace has been provided for by firm organization, every nation must be responsible for what it proposes to do with such power as it possesses. Herein lies the principle at stake in the discussion of questions of armament and defense in the United States. If we understand the prevailing sentiment, the people of this country propose to protect themselves from aggression, and also to use their influence and power in harmony with those people of other nations who are opposed to bullying and aggression, and who wish to

establish the reign of law and justice throughout our planet. There are those who think we can do more to bring about this better state of things in the world if we disarm completely, while the rest of the world is on a war basis. But there are others who perceive that our interests are precisely the same as those of the great masses of plain people in all other countries; and that peace and harmony are to come about through a process of world agreement and organization, and not through the quixotic example of one particular country that should assume that it could live upon a wholly different plane from its neighbors.

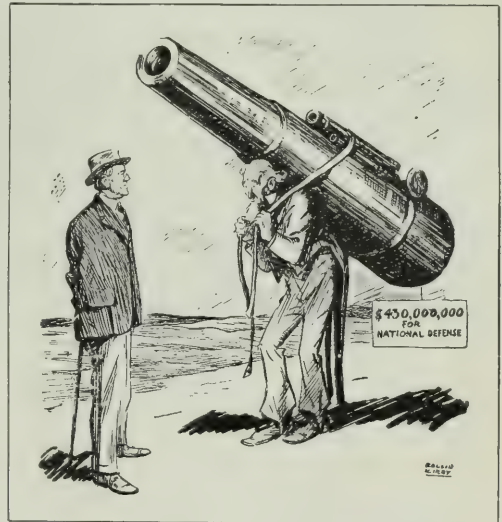
Practical Questions, Not Principles

We have already a highly expensive army and navy; and it is not likely that those people who propose to disband the army and sink the ships could command the vote of a single member of either house of Congress. Since, therefore, we are quite sure to go on for the present with an expenditure reaching several hundred millions a year for the purposes of armed defense, it is obvious that in a time of world war we should consider whether one scheme of defense upon a certain scale, or another scheme upon a different scale, is best suited to the conditions that exist in the world about us. When some years ago we entered upon a fairly definite policy of naval enlargement, our action bore a relation to the naval plans and policies of other countries. Those who advocate now a larger navy and a larger army are bringing forward no new principle whatsoever. They are continuing to hold to the established view of all our past, that the American scheme of defense should be adapted to situations elsewhere. Those who would diminish rather than increase our navy at the present moment are the people responsible for bringing forward a new conception and a new principle. They may be right. But most thoughtful people do not find anything constructive in their program.

Militarism not the Root Evil

The trouble is not chiefly with armaments and militarism. It is with the lack of any substitute for them. Brazil, Argentina, and Chile do not arm against one another, and do not fortify their frontiers. This is because they have removed causes of controversy, have accepted principles of good neighborhood, and have definitely provided a plan for the keeping of the common peace as a substitute for the separate and individual plans of military

defense that they might otherwise have felt obliged to adopt. A foremost reason for maintaining the union of our own American States, even at the expense of one great war, was the continental peace and harmony that we desired and proposed to maintain by a method that would make it certain that different portions of North America would not maintain armaments and fortifications against each other. With Canada on the one hand, and with Mexico on the other, we have long maintained relations of amity through the sheer strength of our pacific federal policy.



UNCLE SAM (TO MR. WILSON): "I GUESS IT'S THE ONLY THING TO DO, MR. PRESIDENT"
From the *World* (New York)

Uses for Our Navy

Our recent concern about revolutionary conditions in Mexico is very different in nature and principle from a rivalry or dispute between two neighboring countries,—as, for instance, between Germany and France. It should continue to be the definite policy of the United States to bring all the countries of the Western Hemisphere into closer association and harmony, with a view to the peace and progress of our half of the world. The Monroe Doctrine from this time forth should be a matter of mutual and common guarantee. We shall not have wars with any of the democracies of North or South America. But if European empires should revive schemes of conquest and development in parts of this hemisphere, there would result a great disturbance of these Western ideal policies for establishing peace on a non-military basis; and one of the reasons for a strong American

navy just now is the further safeguarding of this pacific evolution of the Latin-American republics. When the European system of armed empires breaks up, as it must, there can be a wholesale reduction of armies, while the navies of individual countries will have to be severely restricted. That will be a happy release for overloaded Europe, and it will be welcomed in this country, because we shall then be able to cut down our army and navy bills to a minimum that will not burden us. Defense plans are relative and temporary.

Views of this kind have sufficiently impressed the country to make it probable that there will be a strong support in the opening session of the new Congress for some such program of army and navy expansion as will be recommended by the President and the Secretaries of War and of the Navy. When this is said, however, it is not to be supposed that such measures will be enacted perfunctorily, or without great divergence of opinion on the practical side. It is one thing to hold that the country should be better prepared for defense, and quite a different thing to agree upon a working program. One of the foremost opponents of the Defense League, who attacks unsparingly all those proposing larger military measures, in an eloquent lecture last month denounced the President's changed attitude and caused many of his hearers to understand that he would personally favor the entire abolition of our army and navy. When asked privately, however, what position he would take just now if he were a member of the Congress that meets on December 6, he replied that he would, as a single item, provide for the immediate ex-

penditure in the coming year of approximately \$50,000,000 for a large fleet of new submarines. This merely illustrates the point that what we have before us now is not so much a matter of principle as it is of technical



WILSON: "Can it really be that the pen is mightier than the sword?"

From *De Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)

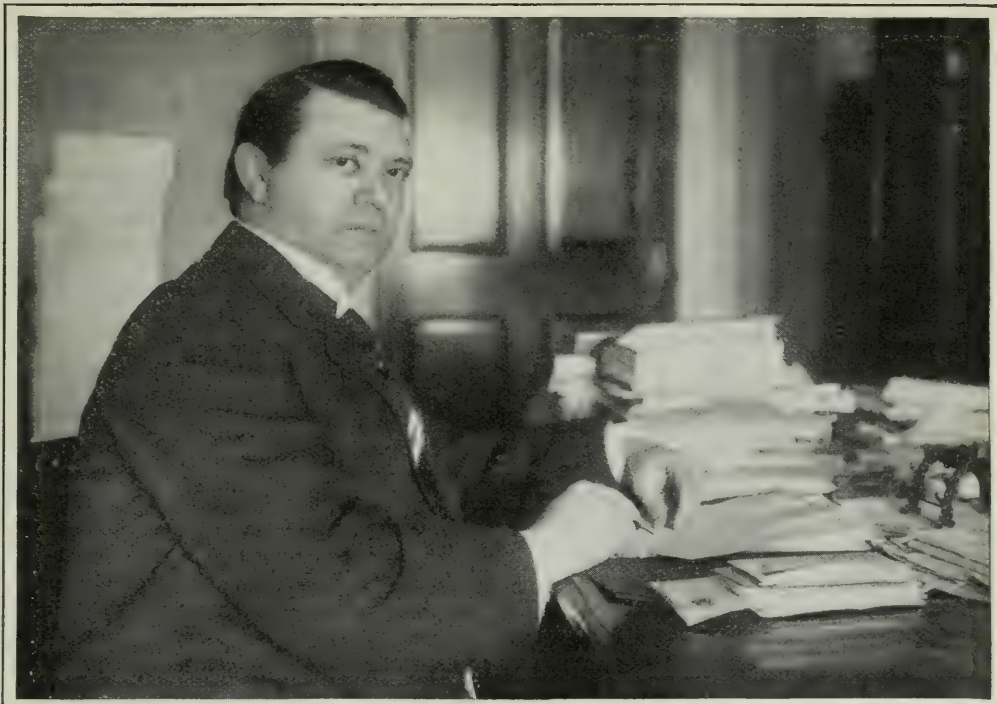
judgment regarding what will constitute the best form of military and naval defense.

Bryan
Assails the
President

Mr. Bryan has been very active in opposing the announced military proposals of the Administration in which he was so prominent a figure until a few months ago. For the most part his talk has taken the form of attack. The public does not know what Mr. Bryan would do if he had to shape the army and navy bills in the forthcoming session. In 1898 Mr. Bryan became a colonel of volunteers. He countenanced the military policies and expenditures of that period. He talks now as if new and broad principles were involved in the President's proposals. Page after page of his paper, the *Commoner*, is filled with denunciation of those who would have the military arrangements of this country bear some reference to the changed military conditions of the world in which we live. To imagine that Mr. Bryan's talk is on high grounds of statesmanship and ethics, while Secretary Garrison's talk is on a lower plane of statesmanship and ethics, is pure nonsense. Mr. Garrison is in a position where he is responsible for definite proposals. The trou-



RIGHT ON HIS TRAIL
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



HON. CLAUDE KITCHIN OF NORTH CAROLINA. LEADER OF THE HOUSE

(Mr. Kitchin was the ranking Democratic member of the Ways and Means Committee and he has been selected by his colleagues to succeed Mr. Underwood, who now takes his seat in the Senate. The Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee is floor leader and manager for his party and his position is one of great importance. The fact that he is opposed to the Administration's plan of army and navy increase was not expected last month to result in an effort to depose him from his chairmanship and leadership)

ble with too many of those who criticize the efforts of the Administration to put the country in a better position for defense, lies in the lack of alternative proposals on their part. We do not refer, of course, to those other critics who think the Administration program could be improved in particular ways.

McAdoo continues to advocate the purchase of a large number of merchant ships by the Government, which can be used in South American trade and be held available for transport and other naval auxiliary service

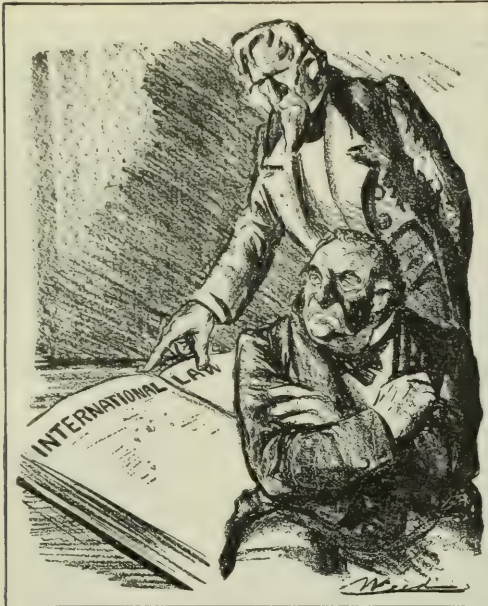
*How Will
Congress
Act?*

There has been a very rapid shifting of ground on the part of Democratic leaders. An exception is the Hon. Claude Kitchin, of North Carolina, who is expected to be chairman of the Ways and Means Committee and floor leader of the Democratic majority in the House. It is natural that the man who must lead in formulating revenue measures should dislike large increases in expenditure. The Treasury is greatly depleted, even on the present scale of public expense, because cessation of imports has reduced tariff income. It is agreed that sugar shall not go on the free list, and that the so-called "war tax" will be maintained. We can see no possible reason why, in the present world emergency, an enlarged navy should not be built with money raised by the sale of bonds. Secretary



"THISTLES"

(Mr. Kitchin makes his offering to the Democratic mule)
From the World (New York)



"STICK TO THE RULES, JOHN"
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia)

in time of war. His views were recently presented in an elaborate speech at Indianapolis. When this proposal comes up again in Congress, it will lead to a very desirable debate upon the related topics of our foreign commerce, our means of water transportation, and the relation of naval defense to ocean traffic. Many facts and considerations are involved, and the time has come for a new survey of the whole subject, without prejudice and in the light of changed conditions. Mr. McAdoo's views are gaining ground.

Thus far, since the European war began, our policies have been of a negative and drifting character. Many things have been done by private agencies to bring commendation to the American people; but our official standing is not as high as it ought to be either with belligerents or with neutrals. We took no position at all with regard to the invasion and conquest of Belgium. We assumed a certain argumentative position regarding the interference with our cotton shipments, and we secured some grants of favor from those who were denying us our rights of foreign trade. But whereas we had an opportunity to bring together the leading neutral powers concerned, in order to formulate an irreducible minimum of principles to be maintained, we assumed no leadership on behalf of neutral rights in general and did not even make a

stand for our own rights in particular. We risked the peace of the country upon a belated assertion of the theoretical right of a native-born or naturalized American citizen to travel in dangerous war zones upon belligerent ships carrying munitions of war directly to scenes of action. Thus our policies, in so far as we have had any, have followed accidents in an opportunist way, instead of dealing swiftly and constructively with main questions, in order that the accidents should not occur. Prompt and positive courses are safest.

The conditions under which our trade was arbitrarily controlled by British Orders in Council were much more harmful and objectionable to us at the beginning of the present year than they are now. Yet we have now sent an elaborate document of protest to England, containing charges and accusations which, under ordinary conditions, would lead to serious trouble. If we had sent this document to England last winter, and had stood firmly for what we held to be our rights, there would have been no *Lusitania* disaster. We were in a perfect position to secure respect for the minimum program of neutral rights that ought to have been agreed upon by a conference of neutral nations under our lead. Since our note of last month to England sets forth what the real opinion of the Administration is (and has always been) regarding interference with our commerce, we are forced to wonder upon what conceivable ground this belated complaint has been held in reserve for nearly a year.



KEEPING THE LIGHT BURNING
From the *World* (New York)

Open Discussion Needed

It is fortunate that Congress is about to meet, and that we may hope to have genuine discussion of all these matters. Our system of government does not lend itself well to international emergencies. A President is elected by us for reasons of domestic politics, rather than for those of international statesmanship. We have no ministry or cabinet accountable to the people's representative parliamentary chambers, as England, France, and most European countries have. In all these matters, when Congress is not in session, our system permits a rule that is more arbitrary than that of any other important government unless one excepts that of Russia. It is this centralization of immense governing power, employing a patronage unknown in any other country (and greater perhaps than that of all other countries combined), that underlies the instinctive sentiment in favor of a single term for the President. The duties of the Presidential office are so exceedingly varied and arduous that the only wonder is that any man can perform them even passably well. No such office exists in any other important country, and nothing in the nature of the office calls for a long term,—except that in practise, since Jackson's time, there have always gone with Presidential changes such partisan upheavals in the personnel of departmental, diplomatic, and other services that short terms mean a welter of inefficiency.

Evils of Party Government

Party government, even in countries which have real parties, fails in times of great emergencies; and the endeavor is usually made to associate leaders of all political elements in united support and guidance of governmental action,—as may be witnessed at the present time in England, France, and all other European countries. With us in America there are now no real political parties in the European sense, except for the Socialists and some other minor groups. Our two so-called "great" parties do not differ enough in essential principles, or in programs of action, to be distinguishable from each other. Most of the leaders of one party might just as well be the leaders of the other, so far as their convictions are concerned. Most of them belong to one party or the other through the same kind of accidental circumstances that might have made some of them attend a church of one denomination and some of them belong to a rival congregation. These two parties stand to-day as the chief enemies of good government in our municipalities and

our States, and it is not treasonable to say that their methods and their rivalry are the chief obstacle to good government in the sphere of national and international affairs.

How Politics Taints Diplomacy

However good or bad a Secretary of State Mr. Bryan may have been, his particular training was not the best preparation for that office at a time when international questions were of foremost concern to all of us in this country. It was a life-and-death matter, as well as a matter of dollars and cents, that we should have had the ablest and best talent in the country shaping our foreign policy and handling diplomatic questions during the past two years. Yet Mr. Bryan was made head of the State Department for reasons of Democratic party politics alone. We were obliged to witness the recall of trained ambassadors and ministers, and the substitution of untried men in diplomatic posts, all to satisfy the pressure of so-called "good Democrats" for salaries and honors at the public expense. The exigencies of internal politics in the Democratic party have led to the demoralization of our painfully constructed fabric of good administration in the Philippine Islands. Phases of party politics had been involved in the treatment of the Mexican question, and, worst of all, in the diplomacy that relates to the permanent use and control of the Panama Canal. Herein lie real dangers to public interest.

The Shocking Colombian Treaty

There is now pending in the United States Senate a treaty with the Republic of Colombia, so suspicious in its origins, so shameful in its explicit provisions, and so fraught with mischief beyond remedy, that to ratify it would be a climax of stupidity and folly if it were not something worse. Things of this kind would be impossible if there were any such thing as intelligent continuity in the work of our Department of State, with sharp elimination of party politics and self-seeking partisan adventurers from the field of our foreign relationships and diplomatic service. These strictures may sound severe, but they are expressed with great deliberation and are well inside the limits of permissible criticism. We are now about to face the insincere maneuvers and plays for position of these two venerable parties in their complicated quadrennial game that dominates the always dreaded year of a Presidential election. And the taint of "party" will affect foreign and domestic policies alike, every day during the coming eleven months.

*New York's
Embattled
Politicians*

Are we, then, to act every man for himself in politics, and lack the convenient aid of the large voluntary associations called "parties"? This does not necessarily follow. The first point to be gained is to get rid of that all-pervasive partisanship that does not exist to help and serve the citizen, but to plunder him through the devices of party politicians and those interests that play the game of politics for private profit. Mr. Root, as president of the New York Constitutional Convention, declared that during his long experience, extending over nearly half a century, the public affairs of the State of New York had not been ruled by the people or their elected officers, but by the bosses of political parties. These bosses, while rivals for the major share of the spoils, are "hand-and-glove" when it comes to protecting the spoils system that benefits the elaborate organizations of both parties. Thus the new constitution, submitted to the voters of New York on Election Day last month, was defeated by a majority of approximately 470,000. The majority against it in New York City was 300,000, while the rest of the State contributed enough to bring the total almost to the half-million mark. What reason can be given for this overwhelming rejection of an admirable document that was entitled to great praise and that should have been adopted as decisively as it was condemned? There is only one answer: It was defeated by a swarming army of Democratic and Republican politicians.

*How the New
Constitution
Was Beaten*

The chief object of the so-called "Root constitution" was to make the government of New York compact and efficient, and to restore it to the control of the people. Not only would it have reformed the larger government of the State, but it would have led to reform in counties and localities. Naturally, Tammany was against it, while the State Republican machine and the "small-fry" politicians in counties, villages, and rural districts, taking orders from their party chiefs, became ac-

tive agents for misrepresenting the work of the convention and creating prejudice against it. There was, indeed, some sincere opposition on points of detail. Many people voted against the constitution because it did not bring about a particular reform they desired, although its adoption was certain to make it much easier to secure what they wished in the near future. These sincere people did not defeat the constitution. Not one voter in a thousand read the proposed document. Its friends were not able, in the short time at their disposal, to overcome the prejudice created by the leagued spoilsmen of the political machines.

*Milestones in
the Fight for
Freedom*

There will be some chance for real parties in this country when we can restore the field of administration to the people. There are real parties in England; but the post-office service, the custom-house service, the vast field of municipal employment, and practically all other administrative services, whether general or local, are not controlled by one party or the other, and are not subject to the ups and downs of party victory or defeat. In these pages last month we made note of the



NO TAG NEEDED
From the Tribune (Los Angeles)

fine endeavor of California to rid itself of partisanship in State affairs, even as it had succeeded in doing in municipal and local matters. The politicians, in the special election of October 26, defeated the non-partisan State referendum by a majority of about 20,000. But it is reasonable to predict that California will even yet, in the not-distant future, adopt this reform and set an example to other States. We are publishing in this number (see page 731) an article on the recent municipal election in the city of Buffalo. For a good many years this important municipality of half a million people has desired to manage its affairs efficiently on a business basis, under the commission form of government, and has fought against the rule of party machines. This opportunity has been won at last, and the results will be worth observing. Buffalo will now show what can be done for the taxpayers and the public on a plan that discards machine politics. Persistent effort has gained great reforms.

*Tammany's
Victory*

Undoubtedly great advances have been made in New York City during recent years through the election of non-partisan officials. There will, of course, be occasional lapses back to Tammany control; but even Tammany accepts from time to time the improvements in administration that are worked out and put in practice under non-partisan officials who are aided by such scientific and expert agencies as the Bureau of Municipal Research. In many details not mentioned in newspaper headlines, there is steady progress in the corporate management of New York City. The conduct of municipal elections always has a tendency, however, to drift back into the control of the political machines. The citizens' movements, which support so-called "fusion" tickets, are strong as a rule only when interest is aroused by the election of a mayor. Thus last month a new Board of Aldermen was voted for, with the result that fifty-four Democrats and nineteen Republicans were elected, to take office on the 1st of January. The retiring Board, over which the Hon. George McAneny has presided with usefulness and efficiency, came into office with the present Mayor and Comptroller on a fusion ticket, and its majority represented the union of citizens against Tammany Hall. Two years hence, an effort will be made to redeem the Board again; but meanwhile it lapses to the domination of the Democratic party, which means Tammany. The Democrats also elected a Dis-



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HON. GEORGE MC ANENY, PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK CITY BOARD OF ALDERMEN

(Mr. McAneny, who was elected with the Fusion ticket in 1913, for a four-years term, is about to resign in order to become one of the managers of the New York Times. He was formerly President of the Borough of Manhattan, and for many years has been a prominent municipal and civil-service reformer. Under the non-partisan administrative systems of England or Germany, Mr. McAneny would be made Mayor or Governor and kept in the public service for life)

trict Attorney, to take the place formerly held by Governor Whitman.

*Like Results in
Philadelphia*

In Philadelphia the election was for Mayor and full control of the city. The Hon. Rudolph Blankenburg had served as Mayor for four years on a non-partisan plan, representing in the highest degree the spirit of efficiency and of fine public service. To succeed Mr. Blankenburg, the independent citizens had chosen Mr. George D. Porter as their candidate. He had been Director of Public Safety, and a foremost member of the Blankenburg régime. The Republican organization brought forward Mr. Thomas B. Smith, who had been a typical partisan and office-holder. The Democrats had a candidate in Mr. B. Gordon Bromley. The results, as announced a few days after the election, were: 166,643 for the Republican, 88,135 for the Independent, and 4741 for the Democrat. It is not to the credit of leading personages in the national Republican and



HON. EMERSON C. HARRINGTON

(Who will be the new Governor of Maryland and is under pledges to work for efficiency and reform in the State Government)

Democratic organizations that they should have congratulated themselves upon the Philadelphia vote in one case and the New York City vote in the other. Both results mean but one thing,—a victory of machine politics in a municipal election in which party issues have no legitimate place. Republican victory in Philadelphia and Tammany victory in New York are merely local brands of the same kind of failure of good government. A thousand Tammany Democrats moving to Philadelphia would vote the Republican ticket. A thousand typical Philadelphia Republicans moving to New York would join Tammany.

A Few State Elections

The few important State elections afford no real indication of the drifts of party strength preliminary to the approaching national contest. Mr. McCall, the Republican candidate, was chosen Governor of Massachusetts by a modest plurality over Governor Walsh. Mr. Stanley (Democrat) was elected Governor of Kentucky on a margin so close that a handful of votes turned the other way would have elected the Republican. Mr. Harrington (Democrat) carried Maryland amidst unwonted pleas for good government, lifted

above motives and methods of political greed. In the States of New York and New Jersey the Republicans won control of legislatures. Little in these State and local elections of last month can fairly be interpreted as indicating either approval or disapproval of President Wilson's administration. In certain places there were German-Americans who claimed that local results were due to feeling against the President's foreign policies.

Ohio—Improving City Government The Ohio elections attracted attention outside of the State chiefly by reason of the referendum vote on prohibition. Decisive opposition in the large cities defeated the amendment, but by a considerably smaller majority than last year. The people of a State ought not to be called upon to vote on a question of that kind more frequently than once in five years. The Republican proposal to redistrict the State for Congressional purposes was also defeated. Of more than ordinary interest were several of the municipal elections. Thus Cleveland and Columbus elected Mayors under charters providing for preferential voting, and intended to thwart the power of political machines. The result in Columbus was to reelect George J. Karb as Mayor for a fifth term. Under the new charter he will serve four years. He is a Democrat, but was elected on his record and his personal merits. The Council, having only seven members, has a majority of Republicans, but the members were elected for individual fitness, and the Columbus newspapers regard the city as "freed from all the old party shackles." In Cleveland, also, the voter has opportunity to cast his ballot so marked as to indicate his first, second, and third choices among the candidates proposed for a given office. Mr. Harry Davis was elected Mayor as a result of the combining of first, second, and third choice votes,—six candidates being on the ticket. He defeated Mayor Witt, who had been one of the followers of Tom Johnson. The Mayor-elect is a Republican, but the new City Council will contain sixteen Democrats and ten Republicans. It is hard to find out to what extent partisanship prevailed in Cleveland, where the purpose of the charter is to secure non-partisan municipal government. In Cincinnati, Mr. George Puchta, the Republican candidate, was elected Mayor by a large majority. Mr. Puchta promises a thorough business administration, and Cincinnati, like other Ohio cities, seems to be making commendable progress in many ways.

*Ashtabula Tries
a Scientific
Scheme*

Ashtabula is not one of the larger cities of Ohio, but it is a typical community of about 20,000 inhabitants. It held its election under a new charter, providing for proportional representation under the famous "Hare system." As this plan had never been employed before in the United States, a number of students and reformers interested in a more perfect mechanism of representative government went to Ashtabula to see the experiment tried. The new City Council will have a membership of seven. There were sixteen candidates. The Hare system provides for cumulative voting. On this plan a minority group, having more than one-eighth of the total voting strength, could in Ashtabula so concentrate as to elect one member of the board. It will be interesting to know whether the theoretical claims of the Hare system will be justified in the practical business of Ashtabula. At least much credit is due for the courage to make this trial. This system is in use to some extent in Australia and New Zealand. Ashtabula makes it part of a new charter which provides for government by commission and city manager. All such governmental experiments, whether in California, Ohio, or as set forth in our article on the Buffalo election, illustrate the growing purpose of the American people to shake off the contemptible shackles of cheap party politics, and to find some way to govern our splendid cities and great commonwealths upon a worthy and efficient plan. The very fact of the defeat of the New York State constitution by so bold a union of up-State and down-State politicians, furnishes an exhibition of the extent of the evil to be combated. The fight will go on.

*The Woman
Suffrage
Question*

We noted last month the rejection of woman suffrage in New Jersey at a special election held on October 19. The official figures of the vote (those given in the REVIEW last month were preliminary) show 133,282 in favor and 184,300 against,—a majority of 51,000 in round figures. On the regular election day, November 2, the suffrage question was voted upon in Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts. As we had predicted, the proposal fared best in Pennsylvania, where (approximately) 356,000 votes were cast in favor and 400,000 against,—a majority of 44,000. It should be observed that the State outside of the city of Philadelphia gave a slight majority in favor of suffrage. In New York the vote was (unofficially) 515,-

000 for and 710,000 against,—a majority of 195,000. This majority was almost equally divided between New York City and the rest of the State. In Massachusetts (also unofficial figures) the vote stood 163,500 for and 295,500 against,—a majority of 132,000. The Massachusetts defeat was much the most decisive, as had been expected.

*Facts
Brought to
Mind*

Our readers may care to be reminded again that Wisconsin, Michigan, and Ohio rejected woman suffrage in 1912, and that Ohio rejected it again in 1914. Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota also defeated it in 1914. Woman suffrage as it exists in Illinois has not been tested by a popular verdict. It does not reach to offices mentioned in the State constitution. The legislature has conferred it, and it is applicable only to offices not designated in the organic law, and would thus not seem to harmonize with the spirit or intent of the constitution. No State east of the Mississippi as yet has fully accepted woman suffrage. California, Oregon, Washington, Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming are the States that have conferred the full franchise upon women. Opponents of the movement claim that in California the suffrage victory was won by a slight majority, with only a third of the voters going to the polls. But this at least would indicate that the public was ready to accept the result. As for the recent campaign in the East, the remarkable thing is the immense vote cast in favor of suffrage. The movement has grown with astonishing rapidity. A very few years ago not one-third as many favorable votes could have been secured in these four States.

*To Work
for National
Suffrage*

The suffragists are now proposing to center their efforts upon Congress. They wish to secure an amendment to the Constitution of the United States that will give full and nation-wide enfranchisement to women. There would be requisite a two-thirds vote of each of the houses, after which the amendment would go to the States for ratification. The proceeding in recent instances (as, for example, the direct election of Senators and the income-tax clause) has been by simple act of legislatures. When three-fourths of the States have accepted an amendment, the fact is duly proclaimed and the provision becomes effective. Our very capable and expert suffrage leaders have learned that they

can do business better with small bodies than with large. Thus the national amendment would avoid any referendum whatever to the voters. Congress would simply pass the thing along to the States, and the suffragists would concentrate upon one legislature after another until they had, in the course of a few years, secured thirty-six ratifications. Such is the present program, and the first part of it is to be undertaken at Washington this winter. President Wilson is on record as opposed to a national suffrage amendment, while at the last moment he decided to cast his vote in favor of amending the New Jersey constitution.

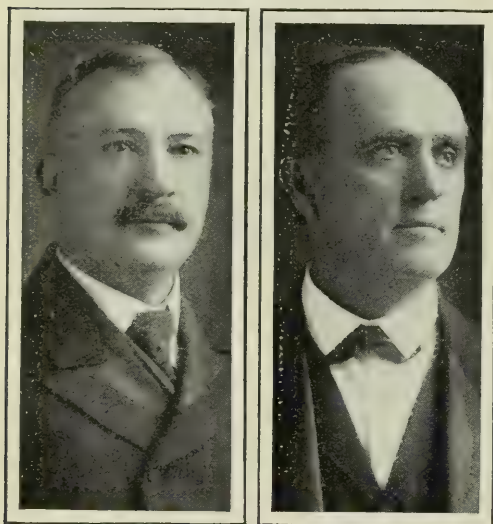
increase of the regular army or increase of the navy. The only definite statement had to do with the enlisting of an extra force, of 400,000 men, in the next three years, who should belong neither to the regular army on the one hand nor to the militia on the other, yet should not be amateurs, but real soldiers. These men would be expected to take a brief period of intensive drill each year for three years, and then be enrolled in a reserve force for three years more.

*Democrats
Falling into
Line*

Democratic leaders on the Atlantic and Pacific seaboard are strong for immediate defensive action. Senator Chamberlain, of Oregon, and Senator Phelan, of California, have expressed themselves without reserve. But Democratic leaders living in the interior of the country are more inclined to concur in Mr. Bryan's views. The influence of the Administration, however, is so dominant that the opponents of the preparedness program have expressed the opinion that there will be no effective opposition in Congress to the measures that have Administration endorsement. The earlier view that the President could not pass his bills without a large Republican support is no longer held. Many Republicans, in both houses of Congress, will favor measures more far-reaching than those of the party in power.

*Shall the
Senate Limit
Debate?*

Probably the first topic that will engage the attention of the Senate will be the adoption of new rules, providing a way to limit debate. The



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HON. JAMES HAY

HON. L. P. PADGETT

(Mr. Hay, of Virginia, is chairman of the House Committee on Military Affairs. Mr. Padgett, of Tennessee, is chairman of the Committee on Naval Affairs. Both have expressed their approval of the President's program for national defense.)

*President
Wilson's
Program*

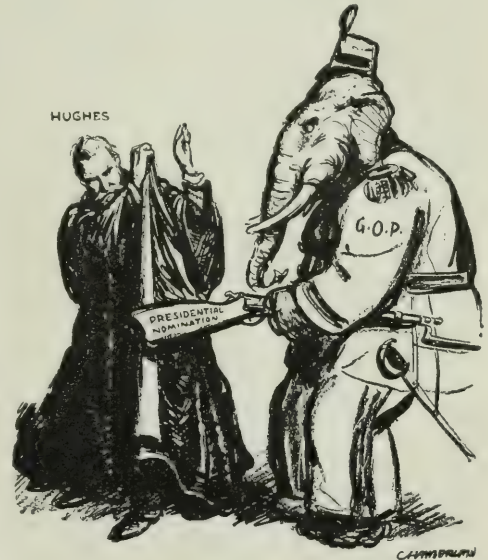
It became definitely known in October that the President was prepared to propose an increase in the army and navy; and the Administration views were explained in these pages last month. A more formal statement, however, was made to the country under the guise of an address by the President at a dinner of the Manhattan Club in New York, on November 4. The President's speech was an admirable example of his felicitous diction. Most of it was devoted to a skilful minimizing of the differences between those who favor bold defensive measures and those who oppose them. Nothing was said about raising the money to pay the bills. No specifications were given as to the extent of the proposed



THE "PORKLESS" MENU
From the Tribune (South Bend)

House of Representatives, ever since the days of Speaker Reed, has had a method by which a party majority, held together by the binding rules of a party caucus, can force a bill to its passage with only a few minutes or a few hours allowed for debate. Real debating has for a long time been confined to the Senate. At times a minority abuses the privilege of unlimited debate, and filibusters. Yet the present Administration has been able to carry an enormous amount of legislation to a successful end, without depriving the Republicans of their privilege of unrestrained speech. There is much to be said for and against the proposal to give the Senate majority a right to fix the limits of debate and demand a vote on any pending measure. Certainly nothing like the House rules should be adopted. Probably the advantages of very deliberate action in the Senate outweigh the evils of an occasional filibuster. Democratic leaders now hold that the Senate is not a continuing body in the strict sense, and that at the beginning of a new Congress the previous rules are not binding. Accepting this view, there can be no filibuster against the closing of debate upon a motion relating to the adoption of new rules. As one goes back over the history of proceedings in Congress, the discovery is soon made that either party, whenever in full power, favors a change in the Senate rules; while the party out of power always tries to preserve the full debating prerogative of the Senate's minority.

the effect of causing him to refuse absolutely to permit his name to be presented before the primaries. As we informed our readers last month, the first of these primaries occurs in Minnesota, on March 14. It has been expected that the progressive Republican elements in that State would support Senator Cummins of Iowa, and that the representatives of conservative business interests would unite upon Mr. Root.



WILL THEY RESORT TO CONSCRIPTION?
From the Sun (New York)

Who Will Run
Against
Wilson?

There are no indications that any factions or elements in the Democratic party will openly oppose the renomination of President Wilson. Mr. Bryan holds that the country ought to adopt the one-term plan, but has not said that he would oppose a second term for a given man as long as reelection is legal. Republicans, Democrats, and Progressives alike are asking who is to run against Wilson. The movement for Mr. Root had become formidable throughout the country, but it received a severe setback in the defeat of the new constitution that Mr. Root had taken the lead in constructing. The politicians are saying that this election has shown that "Root is not a vote-getter"; and that the conditions are such that he could not hope to carry his own State of New York. While this view may be wholly mistaken, it is none the less true that the adoption of the constitution would have gone very far towards making Mr. Root the Republican nominee, while its defeat may have

Hughes in the
Nebraska
Primary

Another phase of the preliminary canvass was presented by the efforts of Justice Charles E. Hughes, of the Supreme Court (formerly Governor of New York State), to prevent the placing of his name upon the ballot paper in the Republican Presidential primary of Nebraska. This primary election does not occur till next April, and the voting papers will not be printed for some months. No reason has been given why a certain group of men in Nebraska should have chosen a date in November for filing a nomination petition that could just as well have been held in reserve for several months. Justice Hughes asks the Nebraska Secretary of State to disregard and reject the petition, on the ground that he is not a candidate. The question has been raised whether the Hughes petition in Nebraska was the work of men who were really desirous of having the Justice elected President of the United States. Everybody of a very moderate intelligence knows that Mr. Hughes could not

possibly permit himself to be put in the position of seeking a political nomination; and newspaper headlines announcing that "Justice Hughes will not be a candidate" are prepared either stupidly or maliciously.

*How Real
"Hughes Men"
Can Proceed*

In the Republican primaries, whether of Nebraska or any other State, there will be nothing to prevent any voter from writing on his ballot paper the name of any man whom he favors. There is no need of filing a nominating petition in advance. Nothing can prevent Nebraska Republicans from telling one another that they intend to express in the primary their preference for Charles E. Hughes. In any case the Presidency is an office that should seek the man. Mr. Roosevelt did not desire to make the run in the Presidential primaries of 1912. The thing was fairly forced upon him by a popular demand expressed through a group of Western Governors. If Western Republicans wish to vote for Mr. Roosevelt in their primaries next spring, they will not need his previous announcement of candidacy, nor any kind of consultation with him. It is true that the primary laws are complicated because the expression of a Presidential preference is in most of the States mixed up with an election of delegates to the national convention. But, nevertheless, any voter who prefers Hughes or Roosevelt or Root can express himself, with influence and due effect, by the simple process of naming his man on the ballot paper in the primaries. It is evident that if a judge on the bench is to be nominated he can take no part in the preliminary proceedings. The primaries will bring out interesting expressions and trends of sentiment; but it is probable that the Republican nomination will be made next year in a convention that will take several ballots in the old-fashioned way. It will be time enough for Mr. Hughes to think about it after the convention has named him and urged his acceptance.

*Congress and
America's
Policies*

While Congress must admittedly proceed to ask and answer the question what we ought to do about our own defenses, and the further question how to raise the money to pay the Government's bills, it ought to debate freely some of the larger aspects of our relationship to the world. We ought to help much more vigorously than heretofore to persuade Europe to end the war and adjust differences upon permanent lines. We ended our war

of 1812 without either side having gained a decisive victory; yet we were able as a result of sobering reactions after the calamities of warfare, to settle many disputed matters upon lines of justice and harmony that have endured for a hundred and one years, and that will insure peace for another century. Germany and France could afford now to settle the Alsace-Lorraine question on a compromise line, recognizing local dialect and preference, and could agree to abolish all fortifications and never again to question the validity of established boundaries. The United States could propose a policy with reference to the freedom of the seas, the re-



"COL. ROOSEVELT IS TO BE RECKONED WITH"

duction of navies, and the safeguarding of world-trade and commerce that would deserve and perhaps secure the support of all nations. We make a colossal mistake if we suppose that the overburdened individual whom we choose as chief executive, and upon whom we impose innumerable tasks, is in a position to think out for us the constructive solutions of problems that affect our future place in the world. These subjects require the best thinking of all the best minds of the nation, and are entitled to open and frank discussion. Secret diplomacy, and closed doors when the Senate debates foreign matters, have become discredited and should be abandoned. If there is anything that stands in the way of permanent friendship between our country and Japan, let us know what it is

and try to deal with it on fine and just principles and by common-sense methods. We seem to have important work to do in the islands of the West Indies for economic, governmental, and financial stability. It can benefit the whole world, and particularly the islands concerned. We ought to do this work to the best of our ability, and tackle it promptly. The time has come for finding a constructive policy of helpfulness to Mexico. It would be imbecile to ignore the fact that foreign capital rightfully owns the major part of Mexican resources and business facilities. American and European interests in Mexico can be helped back to normal prosperity, while the Mexican people themselves can be assisted in ways that will advance their condition and give them a fresh start in the direction of real democracy. Precisely now would seem to be the favorable time for deciding what form this help to Mexico should take. It is a large question and involves the future of both countries. Then there is the Philippine question, which has met with unfortunate treatment at the hands of the present administration and which demands the best strength and wisdom of Congress.

*Mexico's
Rehabilitation*

Mexico is slowly getting back to normal business conditions. In a statement issued by our own State Department the assertion is made that two-thirds of the railroad equipment of the country was destroyed during the six years of insurrection. The railroad lines have now been transferred from military to civil control and as rapidly as possible regular traffic is being resumed. As soon as the railroads become able to move freight regularly from the coastal warehouse points to the interior, trade conditions throughout the country will change for the better. There is now a serious freight congestion at Vera Cruz and other ports. The Carranza Government, recognized in October by the United States and eight of the Latin-American republics, has announced an agrarian policy. The large estates taken for accrued taxes are to be divided into farms and sold, —not given,—to small farmers. Education, too, is to have aid from the federal government, in addition to local support. General Carranza declares that those parts of Mexico which have been under his rule are better supplied with schools to-day than they were before the insurrection began. Elections will not be attempted for at least a year, and the Washington Government, recognizing the

turbulence that still exists in some of the provinces, seems quite willing to have them postponed indefinitely. This is in marked contrast with the Administration's attitude during the Huerta régime. The Government has put in force the embargo on munition shipments noted in these pages last month. Villa's guerrillas, while keeping up a show of fighting, have made no real headway. Carranza's troops have been permitted to cross American territory, and border firing has resulted, as heretofore, in the loss of American lives.

*The
Balkan
Situation*

Mr. Simonds' excellent review, in this number, of the actual war situation last month gives relatively more attention than usual to the diplomatic aspects. His sources of information are varied and of exceptional reliability, and he surveys the campaigns month after month with an unfailing intelligence and a rare ability to explain and to describe that have won the increasing confidence and admiration of our readers from the beginning of the war. Let us then particularly commend, as deserving close study, the analysis that Mr. Simonds gives in this present number of the REVIEW of the remarkable state of affairs in the little Balkan countries. He shows us why and how Allied diplomacy failed, and Teuton diplomacy succeeded, in Bulgaria. He shows us how behind the scenes the Kaiser's sister, Queen of Greece, has been the restraining influence, in defeating the earlier plans of Venizelos to enter the war against the Teutons and Turks. And he also helps us to see the bearings of the Rumanian position, which has been so obscure and so hard to comprehend.

*Why and How
Germany
Proceeds*

Those who would understand both Germany's political motives and her military methods in the sensational and brilliant alliance with Bulgaria and swift opening up of communications from the Golden Horn to the North Sea, will find Mr. Simonds' narration as illuminating as pen could make it. Germany had not been able to bring the war fully home to England, because the submarine campaign had proved a failure and the Zeppelin raids had only stimulated the recruiting movement. She had been driven off the seas, and could only hope to strike at England by menacing Egypt and India through reinforcing Turkey and stirring up the Mohammedan world. While the newspapers were still asking if Bulgaria and Germany



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

QUEEN SOPHIA OF GREECE, ONE OF THE MOST
POTENT PERSONAGES IN THE GAME OF BALKAN
DIPLOMACY

(This distinguished lady is a sister of the German Emperor, and has from the first opposed the Venizelos program and stood for Greek neutrality. Last month she was striving to thwart Lord Kitchener's efforts to involve Greece in the cause of the Allies)

could succeed in opening communication across Serbia, the thing had been accomplished. First, the Danube was opened and flotillas of steamboats were carrying German and Austrian supplies to Bulgarian points for transshipment to Constantinople. Then in a short time, by (1) a southward movement of German troops, (2) an eastward movement of Austrian forces, and (3) a westward movement of Bulgarian armies, the main railroad route from central Europe to the Orient was Teutonized and through trains of supplies were passing from Germany to Turkey, while carrying back cotton, wheat, and other things that Germany greatly needed.

*The New
French
Cabinet*

It is not strange that England and France should have been shaken up by these events; that the French cabinet should have been reorganized; that there should have been much plain talk in the British Parliament and the English newspapers. The French Foreign Minister, Delcassé, had withdrawn from the

cabinet, and the Prime Minister, Viviani, was compelled later to resign in order that Aristide Briand, the masterful Socialist leader who was for a time Prime Minister six years ago, might step to the front as head of a new ministry at this hour of supreme crisis. There were other changes, the most important of which was the conferring of the portfolio of war upon General Gallieni, who as Military Governor of Paris had turned the German flank and saved the capital in the early weeks of the war, and who shares with General Joffre the especial admiration and confidence of the French people. Another member of the cabinet, Denys Cochin, was sent to confer with King Constantine and carry something like an ultimatum to the Greeks, whose aid had become necessary.

*England
Aroused*

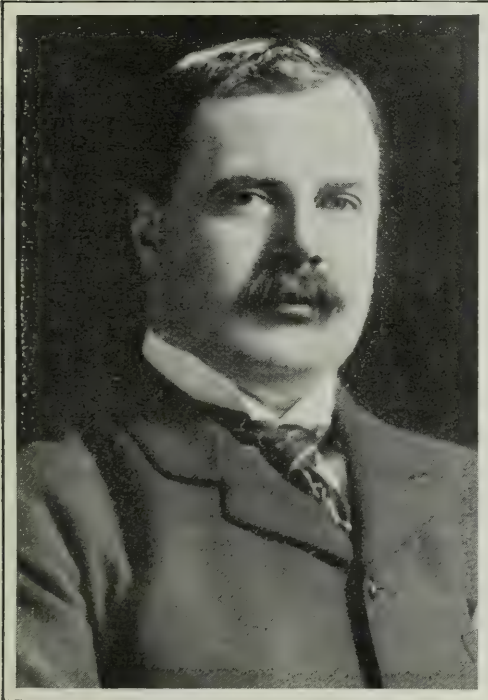
England in like manner sent Lord Kitchener to the Dardanelles, Salonica, and Athens, because of critical decisions to be made without delay. Another result of the Balkan situation was the forming of a joint Anglo-French council of war which had its first meeting in Paris on November 17. In the absence of Kitchener, Premier Asquith represented the war department and took with him Mr. Balfour as head of the navy, Mr. Lloyd George, and Mr. Bonar Law. On the French side were Messrs. Briand, Gallieni, with General Joffre and the Minister of Marine. It was expected that Russia and Italy will join this central council, and that there will be a more unified direction of the war than heretofore. At the beginning of the war a leading figure in the British Government was Mr. Winston Spencer Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, a position corresponding to that of our Secretary of the Navy. But Mr. Churchill was regarded as personally responsible for several unfortunate ventures, notably the ill-timed naval expedition to the Dardanelles. When the Asquith cabinet was reconstructed, in order to admit a number of members of the Unionist party, Mr. Arthur J. Balfour took Churchill's place at the Admiralty, and the younger man was given an inactive cabinet post. Last month Mr. Churchill resigned from the cabinet, made a great speech in Parliament upon his own record and the general conduct of the war, and promptly proceeded to the front as an officer in a volunteer regiment of which he has long been a member. There is always, in times of military reverse, a disposition to find scapegoats. While Mr. Churchill did not try to put the blame upon other individuals, his

speech convinced his enemies as well as his friends that he had been unfairly criticized and that the professional military and naval authorities, as well as the cabinet as a whole, had fully considered the expeditions that had been denounced as Churchill's blunders.

English Recruiting The recruiting work has gone forward with increasing success in England, and more than three million men have been enlisted. Entirely new methods have been used since October, under the full direction of the Earl of Derby. This vigorous nobleman has had wide experience in executive work, and is what we in America would call an "efficiency" or "scientific management" enthusiast. He took recruiting out of the hands of the military authorities, and proceeded upon a plan of exhaustive civilian organization, based upon census records. Every eligible man in the United Kingdom was to be personally canvassed. On November 11 Lord Derby announced that the Government would adopt compulsory measures if young, unmarried men did not come forward in sufficient num-



ARISTIDE BRIAND, THE NEW FRENCH PREMIER



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE EARL OF DERBY

(who, by request of Lord Kitchener, has undertaken the direction of recruiting for the army. Earl Derby served as chief press censor in South Africa during the Boer war and later as private Secretary to Lord Roberts)

bers. But the Derby methods, which are to be tried until December 11, seem to be successful, and it is not likely that conscription will be adopted. Steps were taken, late in November, to stop the emigration of men of military age, some of whom were thought to be leaving the country for the United States in order to avoid army service. In later pages we are publishing a number of reproductions of the highly colored posters that are to be found all over England, urging enlistment and subscription to government loans.

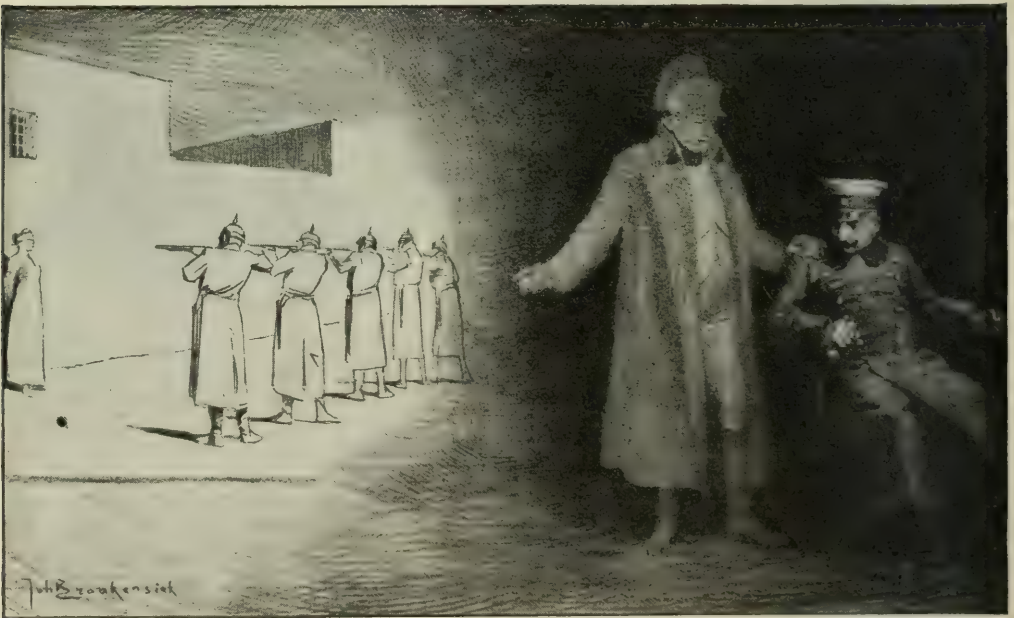
Miss Cavell's Execution It was stated in England that no single event had done so much to stimulate enlistment as the execution by the German military authorities in Brussels of an English nurse, Miss Edith Cavell. She had lived for some years in Brussels, where she conducted a private hospital. After the German occupation of the Belgian capital, Miss Cavell remained, using her institution for the nursing of wounded soldiers, including Germans. Under like circumstances a German woman would not have been permitted to remain at the head of a hospital in territory under English jurisdiction. Miss

Cavell was under obligation to confine her capacity as a nurse, and had betrayed that self strictly to professional duties. It had confidence. She was held as spy and traitor. been repeatedly intimidated by the German authorities that as an English woman she might better cross the line into the neutral territory of Holland. But she had declared that as long as there were wounded to care for she was determined to remain at her post. At length, she was accused of being the center of a conspiracy for smuggling English, French, and Belgian soldiers across the lines, and otherwise serving the enemies of Germany. From the standpoint of the Germans, her conduct was more reprehensible than that of an ordinary spy, because she had appealed to German confidence in her ca-



THE LATE EDITH CAVELL

From the English standpoint, naturally, she was a martyr. The French Government had executed German women accused of espionage under circumstances that, the Germans declared, made their offenses less serious than were Miss Cavell's. As was his duty, Mr. Whitlock took an interest in the case, and asked clemency in the matter of the sentence. But there was no question raised by him as to the fairness of the trial or the technical legality of the sentence under military rules. Miss Cavell herself admitted the facts, and



GHOST OF NAPOLEON (TO KAISER WILHELM): "I CONDOLE WITH YOU! SUCH DEEDS, I KNOW BY EXPERIENCE, BRING BAD LUCK"

From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

(In 1804, on flimsy pretexts of treasonable activity, Napoleon caused the court-martial and execution of the distinguished young Duc d'Enghien, the only survivor of the princely house of Condé. All Europe was shocked by Napoleon's ruthless exercise of power in his own personal interest)

was prepared to die for her country. In time of war it becomes of importance that men and women who belong to the Red Cross service, or to the professions of medicine and nursing in any capacity, should abstain from violating the confidence that is reposed in them. Nurses must practise their calling in good faith, and not attempt under cover of their profession to render secret service to the enemy of those who have reposed trust in their professional honor. The execution of a woman spy is hateful to all people of fine sentiment; but it is expressly required under the rules of war that both sexes be treated alike in such cases. The incident does not seem to have had quite accurate treatment in the English and American press. It would have been quite sufficient to make Miss Cavell's sentence that of mere expulsion from the country. That she was a woman of sincere and noble character is fully admitted by her executioners. The Kaiser remitted the death sentence of eight others implicated with her.

*Our New
Industrial
Activity*

Stimulated by amazingly bountiful harvests, by a plentiful supply of money, and by Europe's enormous demand for our food products and munitions, the United States has rushed into a new period of industrial activity. Following the excellent crops of last year, the 1915 yield of wheat is estimated in the latest report at over one billion bushels, very much the largest in the history of the country. The five-year average is only 686,000,000 bushels. One billion bushels means that the United States has produced this year one-fourth of the entire world's yield of wheat. The latest estimate of the yield of corn is 3,090,000,000 bushels, and at current prices it is the most valuable corn crop ever grown. The crop of oats also made a record, both in quantity and value. In spite of the demand for moving these great farm crops, in spite also of the activity and great volume of trading in securities on the exchanges of the country, the money supplies of the banks are most ample, and loans payable on call have continued through all the summer and autumn months to be quoted at interest rates more often below 2 per cent. per annum than above it,—a phenomenon generally seen only in periods of deadly dull trade depression.

*China's
Government*

Although Great Britain and Russia had joined with Japan in advising China to postpone the reestablishment of the monarchy, it was announced at Peking early last month that most of the provinces had voted for a restoration of the old form of government, with President Yuan Shih-Kai as Emperor, in spite of the fact that the President's declaration against such action and in favor of a continuation of the republic had been widely published. He has declared that his personal conviction that a republic is China's best protection against foes within and without remains unchanged. Impartial students of the Chinese situation have not hesitated to express the opinion that popular government, as we understand it in America and Great Britain, is at present out of the question in China. Such observers believe that whatever attempt is made in that direction must in fact be conducted very largely in the spirit, if not in the form, of monarchy. After all, the formal structure is of secondary importance if the people are being schooled in the principles and practise of self-government. Last month there were persistent rumors that England, France, and Russia had proposed to China an alliance, believed to be chiefly for the purpose of forestalling a break between China and Japan. America is keenly interested in all that concerns China, but will not be a party to alliances for regulating Chinese affairs.

*An Unheard
of Export
Balance*

The third principal factor in bringing so suddenly a whirl of industrial activity, where for two years or more there was depression and stagnation, is the abnormal demand of the warring countries of Europe for the wheat, packing-house products, clothing, chemicals, horses, and war-munitions that are being shipped across the Atlantic from America. In the last fiscal year this abnormal demand brought it about that our exports exceeded imports by over one billion dollars. The current movements of export and import trade make it probable that this year's excess of exports over imports will result in a favorable trade balance for this country of \$1,500,000,000. So feverish is the activity in this export business and so greatly in excess of facilities is the bulk of goods offered for shipment to Europe, that serious congestion is now seen at the eastern ports of the United States. One important railroad has been forced to declare an embargo on export goods for two weeks in order to catch up with its operating obligations. There is a notable scarcity of ships to carry the merchandise and animals which our manufacturers and farmers have sold abroad.

*Steel
at a
Premium*

The vast quantities of munitions of war now being sent in a steady stream across the Atlantic have made such a sudden demand on the metal supplies, especially steel and copper, that the market prices of these commodities are constantly advancing and the present problem of manufacturers seems to be to obtain material rather than orders. The United States Steel Corporation reports monthly the amount of its unfilled orders. The last report, as of October 31, shows unfilled orders amounting to 6,165,000 tons, a gain of 847,800 tons for the month, and totals 2,700,000 tons greater than the year before, being larger than for any month since May, 1913. With railroads, ship builders, constructors, and warring nations besieging the mills for material, prices are showing more irregularity than ever before.

*Dangers
of the
Situation*

Shrewd observers of the present industrial situation in the United States are impressed with certain dangers attending it. The rush and fury of the sudden turn from trade stagnation to feverish prosperity has tended somewhat to upset our industrial balance. A metal-working town in Connecticut or Pennsylvania has to-day some of the aspects of a western mining town in its boom time. It is to be noted, too, that whereas the balance of trade in our favor has for the first time passed the billion-dollar mark, this was brought about by a greatly inflated export trade in articles the demand for which will end with the war. It is noteworthy that out of this trade balance of a billion dollars, more than \$700,000,000 was excess of export of "contraband" merchandise, over that of normal years. The result of this analysis of our present somewhat fictitious prosperity is the conclusion that America must strip for action to meet industrial conditions after the war, because America is now producing very much more than our home markets require. Especially we need our own ships to take this surplus to foreign markets.

*How
Europe Is
Paying Us*

With the trade balance last year in favor of the United States of one billion dollars,—and this year perhaps a billion and a half dollars,—Europe is put to it to settle her bills for the excess of goods bought from us over goods sold to us. One device was the popular loan of a half billion dollars floated in the United States in October. Over and above this, Great Britain is now obtaining

supplementary credits in the United States, dealing with a committee of American bankers at the head of a syndicate. In November, an initial credit of \$50,000,000 was granted, and further arrangements may bring the total amount to between \$200,000,000 and \$300,000,000. This is a purely banking transaction and necessitates no sale of securities, the credit being largely based upon acceptances drawn on American banks by the London institutions. The third method of settling Europe's debt to us is in the selling back to us of American securities held abroad. This re-purchase of foreign-held stocks and bonds has somewhat slackened now; the total is estimated at from half a billion to one billion dollars.

*Better Times
for the
Railroads*

As has been said in a preceding paragraph, many railroads, especially in the eastern part of the United States, have now all the business they can handle, resulting from the export trade and the current industrial activity. Others like the Great Northern in the Northwest are reporting record gross earnings resulting from the large crop business and heavy ore shipments. The more southern transcontinental lines are doing well, too, with the help of the Panama-Pacific Exposition traffic and the temporary removal of competition by the Panama Canal. The railroads maintain that the congestion now seen, especially in export business, is partly the result of starving them through the governmental regulation of rates, which enforced economies and prevented development of terminal facilities and the adequate purchase of cars. Within the last month they have been buying cars at a rate not seen before for years. It is estimated that orders for thirty-six million dollars worth of new equipment have recently been placed. In the effort of the Western roads to obtain an advance in rates, there was a setback when on November 10 the Commerce Commission denied the carriers' request for a re-opening of their case. The denial was tempered, however, by the Commission's announcement that it would undertake on its own initiative an investigation of the rates, rules, and regulations for shipments of live stock, fresh meats and packing-house products in Western territory. These were the most important items in the original petition of the Western roads for rate advances. If that petition had been granted, these particular items would have increased the revenues of the roads by some \$3,000,000.

*San Francisco's
Notable
Triumph*

One of the very last of the many international conventions and congresses held at San Francisco in association with the Panama-Pacific Exposition was a congress of women which was presided over by Lady Aberdeen. In no year of our history, perhaps, have the organized activities of women had so prominent a place in the attention of the world, even in countries engrossed in war. The Exposition itself will close its gates on December 4, as originally provided. It has been successful from all standpoints, in a surprising measure. It required a high order of courage to go on with it when the outbreak of war was evidently destined to limit its international character. But its existence and activities have constantly served to remind the nations of the permanent value of our civilization. It has held aloft the banners of industry, applied science, education, art, and humanitarianism. Furthermore it has been a great boon to the people of the United States. In a year when the usual movement of travel to Europe was impossible, the exposition offered a specific inducement to people east of the



LADY ABERDEEN (IN CENTER) AND OTHER MEMBERS OF THE WOMEN'S CONGRESS AT SAN FRANCISCO LAST MONTH



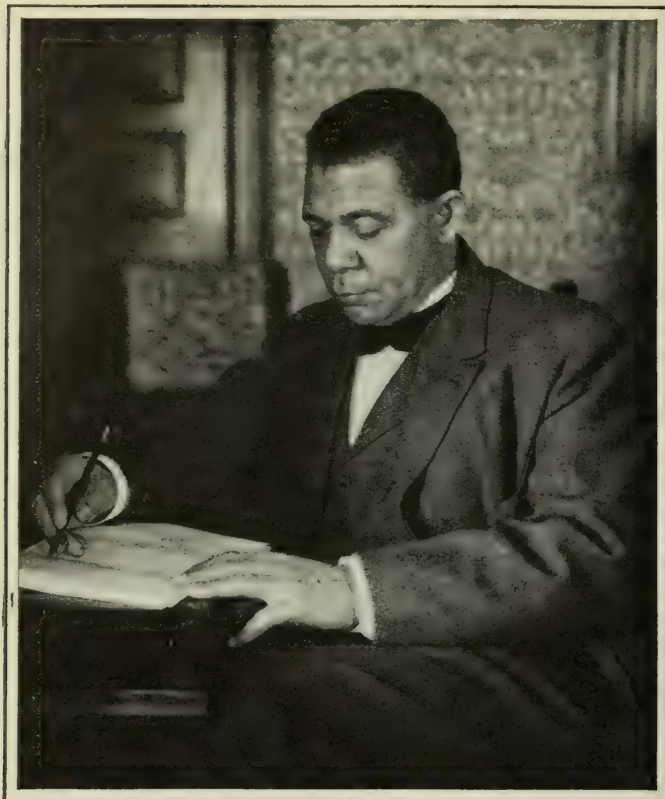
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J. D. ROCKEFELLER, SR. J. D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.
TWO MEN WHOSE WISE EFFORTS AND GREAT RESOURCES HAVE RENDERED EXCEPTIONAL SERVICE TO HUMANITY IN 1915

Mississippi to cross the country and become better acquainted with American resources and life. The leading spirits of the exposition are to be congratulated, as are the city of San Francisco and the State of California. All who visited San Francisco also saw other parts of the Pacific Coast, many of them visiting the exquisite exposition at San Diego.

*Humane
Effort, by
System*

Whether one likes the phrase "religion of humanity" or not, we have had during the past year many evidences of a great passion for human welfare that helps us the more clearly to see that the war itself is fundamentally an accident of political disorganization, rather than an expression of human nature. We have in different countries a score of labor leaders capable of managing large groups of men, a number of industrial and financial managers, and still others trained in the conduct of extensive undertakings. Such leaders could easily have organized the affairs of the nations in such a way as to have made war obsolete and ridiculous. When the conflict is past there will survive some of the admirable voluntary agencies that have of late been trying to serve humanity. Conspicuous among these is the Red Cross Society, which in America is asking for a large endowment looking to its future work. We are glad to publish in this number of the REVIEW an



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THE LATE BOOKER T. WASHINGTON, PRESIDENT OF TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE

article on Belgian conditions and relief, written by so trustworthy a witness as Mr. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross Society. Mr. Bicknell went abroad with Dr. Wickliffe Rose, of the Rockefeller Foundation, to represent unified American efforts for succor in Belgium, Serbia, and elsewhere. Looking back over the great efforts of the past year for human welfare at home and abroad, a great tribute is due to Mr. John D. Rockefeller and his son, for the intelligent and almost unstinted generosity that has been displayed through the "Foundations" and endowments that they have created.

ciated effort in relief and charity, little or nothing could have been done in this period of emergency. The "Foundations" are vindicated.

*Booker
Washington*

There must of course be human devotion and leadership, as well as system, and material resources.

The late Booker Washington was an instance of personal leadership. He accomplished great results, but this was largely because his ability and zeal were recognized by those who employ system and control resources. As a humble negro boy, he obtained his education at the Hampton Institute. He was impelled to strive to build up a great agricultural and industrial school for negroes in the "Black Belt." Circumstances took him as a young teacher, in 1881, to Tuskegee, Ala. Beginning with almost nothing, he left behind him when he died at Tuskegee last month an educational establishment that was famous the world over. Its facilities and resources were hardly equaled by any other institution in the entire South. He was an eloquent and wise leader of his own race, and a great citizen of the United States.

*Some
Praiseworthy
Agencies*

The Rockefeller Foundation, the General Education Board, the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, are all so organized as to help many causes and institutions in vital ways without displacing or disturbing the efforts of any other useful agencies. It would take many pages to explain in a condensed way how widespread and fruitful these Rockefeller activities have been. The boards and

organizations that have been endowed by Mr. Carnegie have also rendered noble and appropriate service. The Sage Foundation is useful to the full extent of its resources. There are many smaller funds and endowments devoted to educational and philanthropic service that are, in their own fields, doing much for the honor and credit of America. Christmas this year must mean altruism and the systematic relief of the unfortunate as at no previous time. There has been a tendency among the ill-informed to sneer at organized charity and at "societies" for philanthropic ends. Now, with the needs and the facts of 1914 and 1915 in memory, there will be fewer criticisms of that careless kind. But for the organization of such societies as the Red Cross; but for the resources and directive talent of the Rockefeller Foundation; but for the use of system and asso-

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From October 20 to November 19, 1915)

The Last Part of October

October 20.—It is officially announced at London that, from the beginning of the war to October 14, German submarines sank 183 British merchant ships and 175 fishing vessels.

In the South African elections, Premier Botha and the Unionists receive a majority in the House of Assembly, the Opposition having declared against further participation in the war.

Czernowitz, capital of Bukowina (Austria), is evacuated by Austro-German forces, according to a Rumanian report.

October 21.—It is learned that Great Britain has offered to cede to Greece immediately the island of Cyprus, if Greece will enter the war on the side of the Allies.

It becomes known that Edith Cavell, an English nurse (principal of a medical institute in Brussels), was shot on October 12 after conviction by German military authorities of assisting enemies of Germany to escape from Belgium; appeals for leniency by the American and Spanish Ministers were ignored.

The Egean coast of Bulgaria is bombarded by French, British, and Russian warships.

The Italian armies begin a general attack along the whole Austrian front, particularly in the coastal region.

October 22.—Russian reports of attacks on German positions in the center and south (particularly in eastern Galicia) state that 15,000 Austrian and German prisoners were captured.

October 23.—It is announced that French troops landed at Salonica, Greece, have crossed the frontier and effected a junction with the Serbian army.

October 24.—United States Secret Service officials arrest Robert Fay, who afterwards declares that he is a lieutenant in the German army and that he came to the United States to destroy with bombs merchant vessels of the Allies and to wreck American ammunition plants.

The German cruiser, *Prince Adalbert*, is sunk by a British submarine near Libau, Russia.

A British submarine sinks the Turkish transport *Carmen*, laden with munitions, in the Sea of Marmora.

The Bulgarian army captures Uskub, an important city in central Serbia.

Austrian aeroplanes drop bombs upon Venice, damaging a church and destroying the best example of the fresco work of the artist Tiepolo; the Austrian version of the occurrence declares it to be in retaliation for bombs dropped on the town of Trieste.

October 25.—King George and President Poincaré review the British troops at the front.

October 26.—Reports of the campaign in Serbia indicate that the German invasion has progressed fifty miles southward along the principal railroad, and that the Bulgarians command the line for a hundred miles between Vrania and Uskub.

The British Foreign Secretary informs the House of Commons that the offer of Cyprus to Greece has lapsed.

The British Admiralty announces that the transport *Marquette* has been torpedoed in the Egean Sea, nearly 100 lives being lost.

October 27.—The invading Austro-German and Bulgarian armies meet in northeastern Serbia.

The Russian fleet (according to a Rumanian report) bombards the Bulgarian Black Sea port of Varna.

October 28.—The Viviani coalition ministry in France, formed shortly after the outbreak of war, resigns; Minister of Justice Aristide Briand (Socialist and ex-Premier) accepts President Poincaré's invitation to form a new cabinet, and selects General Gallieni for the Ministry of War.

King George of England is severely injured by being thrown from his horse during an inspection of British troops in France.

The Italian War Office declares that more than 5000 Austrian prisoners were taken during the operations of the preceding week on the Isonzo front.

October 29.—An official statement of British casualties (to October 9) shows a total of 101,652 killed, 317,415 wounded, and 74,177 missing.

The State Department at Washington receives a second note from Austria-Hungary, relative to the shipment of arms and munitions to the enemies of Austria and Germany; the note is a rejoinder to the American answer of August 16.

October 30.—United States naval experts decide that a fragment of metal alleged to have been found on the *Hesperian* (destroyed on September 4) was a part of a torpedo.

October 30-31.—German attacks in the Champagne, described in the French reports as extremely ferocious, are partly successful.

October 31.—A Turkish official statement declares that the French submarine *Turquoise* has been sunk by artillery fire.

The First Week of November

November 1.—German troops capture Kraguyevatz, the principal Serbian arsenal.

November 2.—Premier Asquith reviews in the House of Commons the British military, naval, diplomatic, and financial situations, with particular reference to the setbacks at the Dardanelles and in the Balkans.

Sickness among the British troops on the Gallipoli Peninsula, the House of Commons is informed, has required the removal of 78,000 officers and men.

November 3.—The French Chamber of Deputies declares confidence in the Briand ministry by vote of 515 to 1, after hearing the Premier's declaration of policy.

November 4.—The cabinet of Premier Zaimis in Greece is forced to resign after a dispute



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York
EFFECT OF A BOMB DROPPED ON A LONDON HOUSE
FROM A ZEPPELIN AIRSHIP

with ex-Premier Venizelos, who controls a majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

November 5.—The British Admiralty makes known the fact that the British transport *Ramazan* was sunk in the Egean Sea by a submarine on September 19, with a loss of 315 Indian troops.

The British submarine *E 20* is sunk by the Turks while operating in the Dardanelles.

November 6.—Nish, the chief railway center of Serbia, is captured by Bulgarian forces.

It is learned that Earl Kitchener, Secretary of War in Great Britain, has gone to the south-eastern theater of war.

A Russian official communication declares that 8500 Austro-German prisoners were taken as a result of a surprise attack on the Stripa River, in eastern Galicia.

The Second Week of November

November 7.—A note from the United States to Great Britain, protesting against British interference on the sea with American trade, is made public at Washington; the note declares that the British blockade measures cannot be recognized as legal, and that the United States will not with complacency suffer further subordination of its rights.

Stephanos Skouloudis accepts the premiership in Greece, retaining the members of the Zaimis cabinet.

The small German cruiser *Undine* is sunk by a submarine (presumably British) off the south coast of Sweden.

November 9.—The Italian passenger steamer *Ancona*, bound for New York, is sunk in the Mediterranean by a submarine flying the Austrian flag; more than a hundred passengers are killed, including several Americans.

The French expedition in southern Serbia meets and engages a Bulgarian invading army, in the region around Veles.

November 10.—Premier Asquith, in asking the House of Commons for an additional vote of credit amounting to \$2,000,000,000, declares that the war is costing Great Britain \$21,750,000 a day.

November 10-11.—Four large American plants

extensively engaged in the manufacture of war munitions for the Allies are seriously damaged by fires believed to have been of incendiary origin.

November 11.—Lord Derby, Director-General of Recruiting in Great Britain, announces that the Government will adopt compulsory measures if sufficient numbers of young, unmarried men do not come forward voluntarily before November 30.

Premier Asquith announces the creation of a War Council composed of five members of the cabinet: the Prime Minister, First Lord of the Admiralty, Colonial Secretary, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Minister of Munitions; the Minister of War is not included, because of absence.

November 12.—King Constantine dissolves the Greek parliament; new elections are to be held December 19.

Both German and Russian reports indicate that the offensive along the greater part of the eastern front has passed from the Germans to the Russians, apparently the Germans have abandoned, temporarily at least, their efforts to reach Riga and Dvinsk.

The Italian passenger steamer *Firenze* is sunk off the Egyptian coast by a submarine flying the Austrian flag; most of the passengers and crew are saved.

The Third Week of November

November 14.—The Italian Government declares that the *Ancona* was cannonaded by a submarine without warning, and that the work of abandoning the ship was interfered with. . . . The Austrian Government declares that the vessel attempted to escape after warning had been given, and that an hour and a half elapsed before it actually sank.

Three Austrian aviators drop bombs on Verona, Italy, killing sixty persons.

November 15.—Two Austrian aviators bombard Brescia, Italy, killing seven persons.

The German War Office reports the capture of 8500 Serbians, mostly by the Bulgarian army.

British forces on the Gallipoli Peninsula carry 280 yards of Turkish trenches in Krithia ravine.

November 17.—A council of British and French officials is held at Paris; the British Premier and three of the leading members of his cabinet confer with the French Premier and the chiefs of the army and navy of France.

The Bulgarian invading army occupies Prilep, in southern Serbia.

The British hospital ship *Anglia* is sunk by a mine in the English Channel; nearly a hundred wounded soldiers are drowned.

The Chancellor of the British Exchequer states that Great Britain has made or promised war loans to other countries totaling \$2,375,000,000.

November 18.—It is intimated in the House of Lords that the new British commander on the Gallipoli Peninsula, Gen. Sir Charles Monro, favors the abandonment of the undertaking to force the Dardanelles.

November 19.—It is estimated that four-fifths of Serbia is occupied by the invading Austro-German and Bulgarian armies.



© Panama-Pacific International Exposition

THE PALACE OF FINE ARTS, AT THE SAN FRANCISCO EXHIBITION

(This structure has been universally acclaimed the most beautiful of the exposition buildings. Plans are under way to preserve its usefulness, after the fair closes on December 4, as a permanent art museum. The Palace is built in the form of an arc, with a double row of Corinthian columns and a domed rotunda 165 feet high. The photograph was taken from the opposite side of a forest-bordered lagoon, and shows the structure in relationship with the surrounding landscape)

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From October 20 to November 19, 1915)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

October 23.—More than 25,000 women parade in New York City as a demonstration for woman suffrage, to be voted upon at the coming State election.

October 26.—The voters of California reject the proposition to eliminate party names from the ballot in all except national elections.

November 1.—The Arizona anti-alien law, which provided that 80 per cent. of the employees of any concern must be of American nationality, is declared unconstitutional in the United States Supreme Court.

November 2.—Elections are held in eight States.

The following Governors are chosen:

Kentucky, Augustus O. Stanley (Dem.)
Maryland, Emerson C. Harrington (Dem.)
Massachusetts, Samuel W. McCall (Rep.)
Mississippi, Theodore G. Bilbo (Dem.)

Woman suffrage amendments are rejected in three States, as follows:

	For	Against
Massachusetts	163,500	295,500
New York	515,000	710,000
Pennsylvania	356,000	400,000

A Statewide prohibition amendment is rejected in Ohio, by a majority of 35,000.

The proposed revision of the State constitution is rejected by the voters of New York, by a majority of 470,000.

Five Representatives in Congress are elected to fill vacancies; in the Twenty-third New York District, previously Democratic, the election of William S. Bennet (Rep.) reduces the Democratic majority in the House to twenty-five.

In New York and New Jersey, the Republicans retain majorities in the State legislatures.

The Philadelphia municipal election results in the defeat of the "reform" candidate by Thomas B. Smith (Rep.), by a plurality of 80,000.

The city of Buffalo elects four non-partisan commissioners, under the new charter (see page 731).

November 4.—President Wilson, addressing the Manhattan Club (Democratic) in New York City, outlines his program of preparedness for national defense.

November 5.—Secretary Garrison makes public the details of his plan for increasing the army, approved by the President; he would raise the standing army from 108,000 to 141,000, and create a new citizen army of 400,000, partly trained.

November 11.—It is stated at the White House that President Wilson has invited Republican leaders in Congress to confer with him regarding the program for defense.

November 18.—Supreme Court Justice Hughes requests that his name be withdrawn from the list of Republican Presidential candidates in the Nebraska primary (April, 1916).

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

October 26.—Premier Zahle, of Denmark, declares that the woman-suffrage clause of the new constitution will become effective in time for the general elections scheduled for July, 1916.

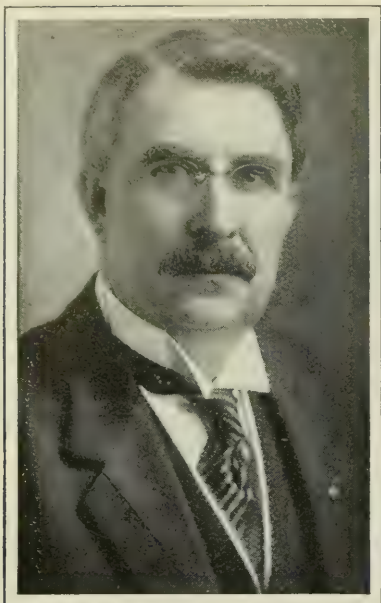
November 3.—Dispatches from China indicate that most of the provinces have voted unanimously in favor of restoring the monarchical form of government, with President Yuan Shih-kai as Emperor. . . . After an engagement lasting several days, General Villa abandons his attack on the Carranza forces at Agua Prieta (near Douglas, Ariz.).

November 9.—It is officially announced that there will be no change this year in the form of China's government.

November 10.—The Japanese Emperor, Yoshihito, is formally crowned at Kioto, with simple but impressive ceremonies.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

October 20.—The United States declares an embargo on the exportation of arms to Mexico, except to territory controlled by the Carranza forces.



HON. STUART F. REED, OF WEST VIRGINIA

(There are many evidences of the vitality and growth of the movement for uniform consideration, in and by the various States, of questions of national scope. Much good may come from the recently organized Association of American Secretaries of State, which elected Mr. Reed president at its first convention, held at Cincinnati late in October. The Association will first work for uniform corporation laws and license regulations, and for a general spirit of coöperation among States)

October 21.—Three United States soldiers are killed by Mexicans in an attack upon their outpost near Mission, Texas; five of the Mexicans are killed.

October 25.—The State Department at Washington is advised of the appointment of Dr. Vi Kyuin Wellington Koo as Chinese Minister to the United States, succeeding Minister Kat Fu Shah.

October 29.—The Japanese Foreign Office announces that Japan has advised China, in coöperation with European powers [Great Britain and Russia], to postpone the reestablishment of a monarchical form of government.

October 30.—It is officially stated at Peking that France and the United States refused to join in the Japanese representations to China.

November 1.—China rejects the proposals of Japan, Great Britain, and Russia for postponement of the decision regarding the future form of government, on the ground that the question is entirely in the hands of the people.

November 12.—The Haitian Senate ratifies the treaty providing for American oversight of financial affairs and the constabulary.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

October 27.—A new American aeroplane record is established by Oscar A. Brindley, who flies 554 miles along the California coast within ten hours.

October 28.—Fire destroys a parochial school at Peabody, Mass., and causes the death of 21 girls; the building was without fire-escapes.

November 6.—A factory fire in Brooklyn causes the death of twelve employees, eight of them women.

November 7.—Forty thousand men parade in Chicago, as a demonstration against the enforcement of the law closing saloons on Sunday.

November 10.—A tornado sweeping over parts of Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa, and South Dakota wrecks many buildings and causes the death of at least ten persons.

November 12.—The Nobel Prize for physics is awarded to Thomas A. Edison and Nikola Tesla; the 1914 prize for chemistry is awarded to Prof. Theodore William Richards, of Harvard University.

OBITUARY

October 21.—Amos F. Eno, extensive holder of real estate in New York City, 81.

October 22.—Sir Andrew Noble, a British authority on artillery and explosives, 84. . . . W. G. Grace, the noted English cricketer, 67.

October 23.—Thomas Waldo Story, a distinguished American sculptor, 60.

October 24.—Arthur T. Lyman, a prominent Massachusetts cotton manufacturer, 83.

October 25.—Paul Ernest Hervieu, the noted French dramatist, 58. . . . Rear-Admiral Henry Manney, U.S.N., retired, 71. . . . Baron von Wangenheim, German Ambassador to Turkey.

October 26.—Sylvester Clark Dunham, president of the Travelers Insurance Company, 69. . . . Charles E. Granger, former Chief Justice of the Iowa Supreme Court, 80.



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THE NEW CHINESE MINISTER TO THE UNITED STATES, DR. V. K. WELLINGTON KOO

(Even during his student days at Columbia University, Dr. Koo attracted wide attention in this country as well as his own. Soon after his graduation he was brought back to China as a special adviser of President Yuan Shih-kai. His appointment to the Washington post, which just now the Chinese Government considers one of the highest importance, is a remarkable tribute to a man only thirty years old)



F. A. MCKENZIE
(Fisk University)



J. H. MAC CRACKEN
(Lafayette College)



H. N. MAC CRACKEN
(Vassar College)



© F. Davey
RAY L. WILBUR
(Stanford University)

FOUR NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

(Dr. McKenzie was last month inaugurated president of Fisk University, at Nashville, an institution devoted to the higher training of negroes. The new presidents of Lafayette College, at Easton, Pa., and Vassar College, are sons of Dr. Henry M. MacCracken, who was for twenty years Chancellor of New York University. Dr. Wilbur has been dean of the Medical School of Leland Stanford University, and will become president of that institution on January 1)

October 27.—Frank West Rollins, ex-Governor of New Hampshire, 55. . . . Col. John C. Moore, a pioneer Western newspaper editor and first Mayor of Denver, 84.

October 28.—Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, former Governor of South Australia and prominent anti-slavery advocate, 78. . . . Warwick Hough, former Chief Justice of the Missouri Supreme Court, 79.

October 29.—John Wolcott Stewart, former Governor of Vermont and ex-Congressman, 89. . . . Reginald Earle Welby, Baron Welby, a prominent English financier, 83.

October 30.—Sir Charles Tupper, the famous Canadian statesman, 94.

October 31.—Blanche Walsh, the actress, 42.

November 1.—Herman Ridder, editor of the *Staats-Zeitung*, the widely known German newspaper of New York, 64. . . . Col. Edward L. Preterious, publisher of the St. Louis *Times* and the German newspaper *Westliche Post*, 49. . . . Sir Arthur Rucker, the English scientist and educator, 67. . . . Lewis Waller, the English actor-manager, 65.

November 2.—Isaac Leopold Rice, a New York financier and promoter of industrial enterprises, 64. . . . Wirt du Vivier Tassin, assistant curator of the division of mineralogy in the National Museum, 46.

November 3.—Brig.-Gen. George Miller Sternberg, U.S.A., retired, former Surgeon-General of the army, 77. . . . Rear-Adm. Thomas Stowell Phelps, U.S.N., retired, 67. . . . William Wallace Spence, a retired Baltimore banker, prominent in civic work, 100.

November 4.—Sir Robert Laidlaw, of London, president of the World's Sunday School Association, 59.

November 6.—Peter A. Brown Widener, the Philadelphia financier, philanthropist, and art collector, 81. . . . Henry P. Kirby, a prominent New York architect, 61.

November 8.—Brig.-Gen. Walter Howe, U.S.A., retired, 69.

November 9.—Edward Smith Willard, the noted English actor, 62. . . . William Frederick Allen, publisher of railway guides and originator of the standard-time system used throughout the United States, 69. . . . Rev. George Nye Boardman, professor emeritus of systematic theology in the Chicago Theological Seminary, 89.

November 10.—Frederick Warren Dodge, publisher of architectural and building-trade periodicals, 51.

November 11.—FitzGerald Tisdall, for half a century professor of Greek in the College of the City of New York, 75.

November 13.—Brig.-Gen. William Henry Harrison Beadle, a veteran of the Civil War and leader in educational movements in South Dakota, 77.

November 14.—Booker T. Washington, the noted negro educator, 56 (see page 664).

November 15.—Dr. Edward Livingston Trudeau, founder of a famous tuberculosis sanitarium in New York State, 67.

November 16.—Julius Cæsar Burrows, for more than twenty-five years Congressman and United States Senator from Michigan, 78. . . . Dr. Major A. Veeder, who discovered that flies carry typhoid germs, 67. . . . Prof. Raphael Meldola, a distinguished English chemist, 66. . . . Susan E. Dickinson, a noted newspaper correspondent during the Civil War, 82.

November 17.—Theodore Leschetizky, the famous German piano teacher, 85. . . . Charles L. Loop, vice-president of the Southern Express Company and prominent Chattanooga citizen, 75.

November 18.—Rev. Father William H. Reaney, senior chaplain in the United States Navy, 50. . . . Dr. Henry Charlton Bastian, a prominent English neurologist and biologist, 78.

CARING FOR WAR'S WOUNDED AND DISABLED



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A CORPS OF ENGLISH RED CROSS NURSES WITH THEIR FIELD OUTFIT AND KHAKI UNIFORMS



Photograph by Bain News Service

GERMAN RED CROSS MEN, WITH THEIR DOGS, WHO ARE TRAINED TO ASSIST IN THE WORK AND WEAR THE RED CROSS BADGE



BASKET-WEAVING BY A GERMAN SOLDIER WHO HAS LOST HIS SIGHT



CRIPPLED GERMANS MAKING SOLDIER MODELS FOR THE TOY MANUFACTURERS



©International News Service, New York

FRENCH SOLDIERS PAINTING TOYS, MANY OF WHICH AMERICAN CHILDREN WILL USE



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

DISABLED FRENCHMEN BEING TAUGHT A TRADE



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

TEACHING CARPENTERING TO A BLIND SOLDIER



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

PERMANENTLY DISABLED ENGLISH SOLDIERS BEING TURNED INTO BUSINESS MEN
(A private institution where the crippled men are taught various commercial branches)



ENGAGING IN GARDEN WORK WITH ARTIFICIAL HANDS



© International News Service, New York

A BRITISH "TOMMY" AS MILLINER

SOME RECENT CARTOONS



© International News Service, New York

MERELY FRIENDLY ANXIETY
From the American (New York)



MAYBE IT IS WRONG TO FIGHT, BUT SUPPOSE THE OTHER FELLOW DOESN'T THINK SO?

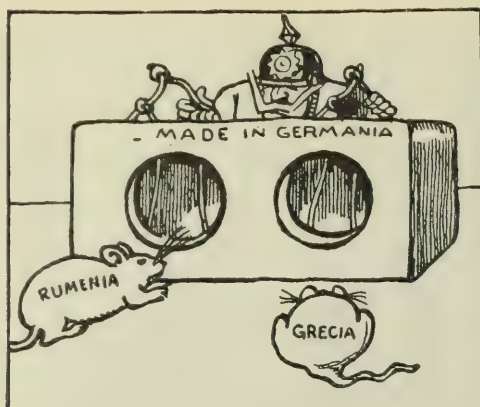
From the News-Press (St. Joseph)



APROPOS OF THE PRESIDENT'S NATIONAL DEFENSE SPEECH AT THE MANHATTAN CLUB IN NEW YORK

MR. BRYAN: "You unchristian bird..."

From the World (New York)



THE GERMAN MOUSE-TRAP IN THE BALKANS
Bulgaria has been caught; will Rumania and Greece also go into the trap?

From *L'Illustrazione* (Milan)



THE HOHENZOLLERN HABIT

KAISER (to his brother-in-law, the King of Greece): "You see, Tino, you've married into the family, and you ought to do as the family does. When we encounter a little thing like that we—tear it up."

From *Punch* (London)



THE ENTENTE IN AMERICA

The search for the "silver bullets" (referring to the loans sought by the Allies in the United States).

From *Der Floh* (Vienna)



POOR GERMAN MICHEL!

The two Emperors, Wilhelm and Franz-Josef, are wringing costly victories out of their poor subjects.

From *L'Esquella de la Torralxa* (Barcelona)



CHANGING HIS "POINT"

KAISER FOX: "I wonder if there's a way out here."

(The gate to Calais was barred, the path to Petrograd closed; so the German forces are driving toward Constantinople, and have made such progress as to enable Berlin to announce through railroad service from that city to the Turkish capital)

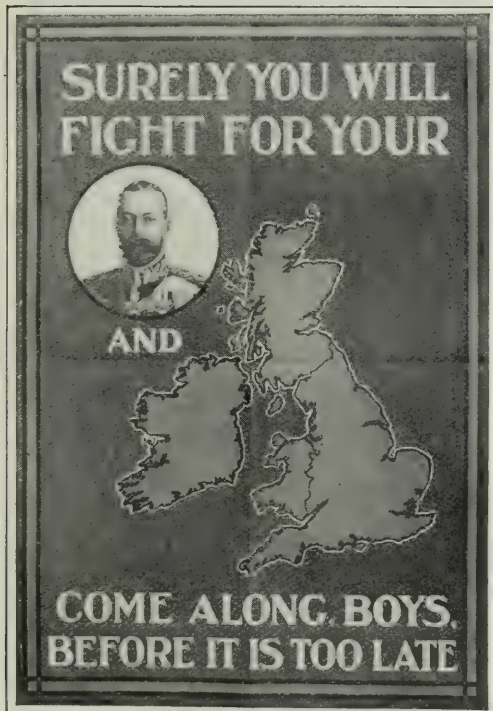
From the *Bystander* (London)



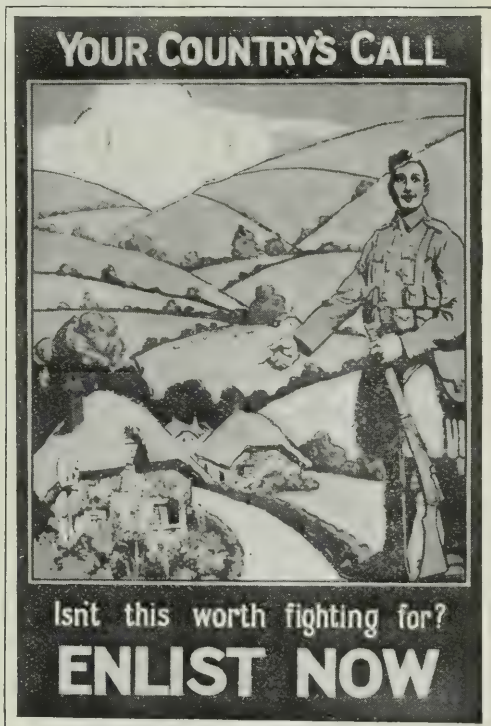
A LINE OF SMILING LADS IN KHAKI COLOR (20 x 6 INCHES)

BRITAIN'S WAR POSTERS

LORD DERBY'S announcement last month that voluntary enlistment might give place to some form of conscription by the end of November, makes pertinently interesting the poster campaign by means of which Great Britain has been mobilizing her military resources, both in men and money. Even in plain black and white, these brilliant post-

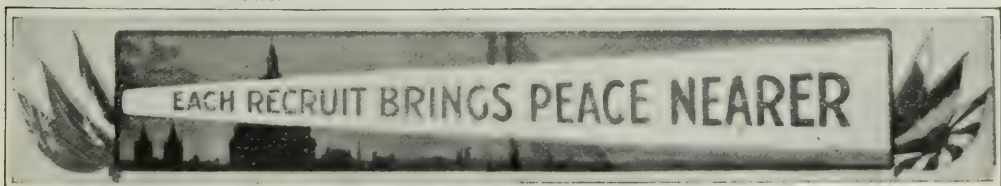


STRIKING THE "LOYALTY" NOTE IN RICH RED AND BROWN

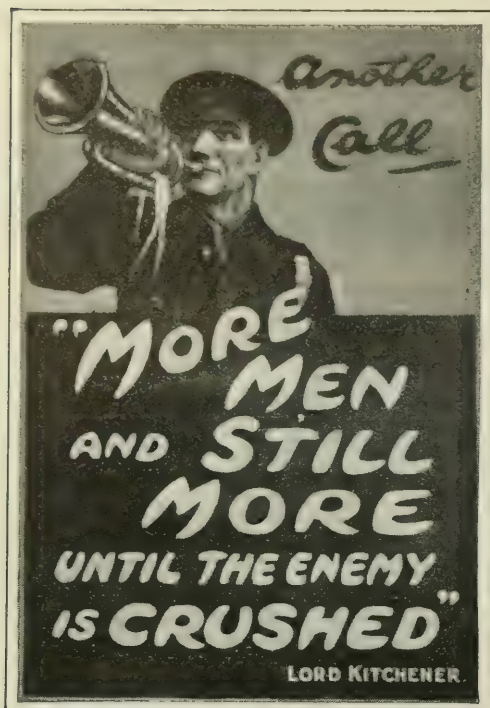


IN THE ORIGINAL OF THIS THERE IS A BLENDING OF MANY BRIGHT LANDSCAPE COLORS

ers retain much of their original force. Printed mostly on 20x30-inch sheets (shaped like the two center cuts on this page), in bright, contrasting colors, and appealing to the citizen from many angles, they present a notable example of official government use of modern commercial advertising methods.



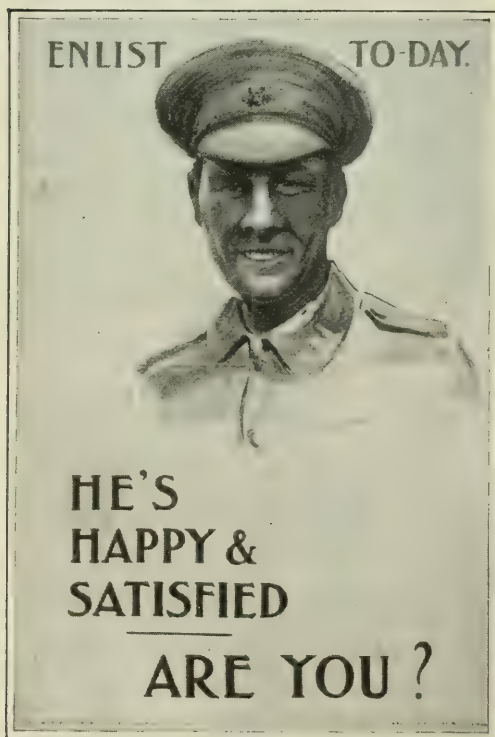
A PITHY SENTENCE IN A RED, WHITE AND BLUE STRIP, 30 x 5 INCHES



ORANGE AND BROWN MAKE EFFECTIVE BACKGROUNDS FOR THIS STRIKING KITCHENER QUOTATION SPREAD BOLDLY ACROSS THE SHEET IN WHITE



THE BOY SCOUT DOING HIS "BIT" ON A POSTER THAT CARRIES A HEAVY RED BORDER



A SOLDIER'S FACE SMILES OUT OF A YELLOW AND WHITE BACKGROUND ON THIS POSTER



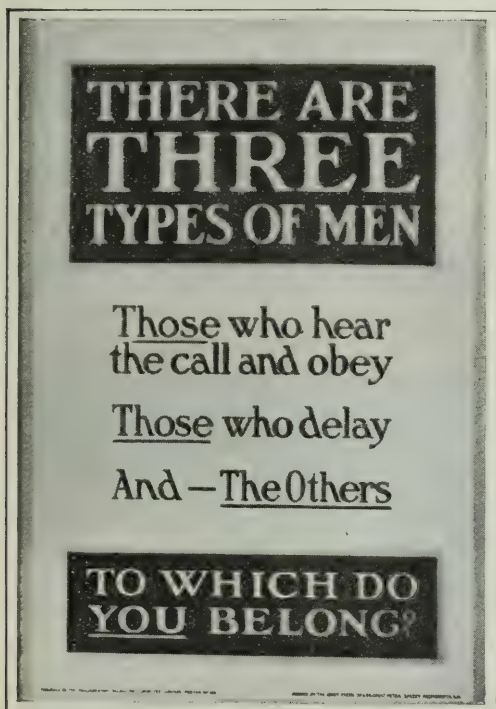
THE STURDY FIGURE IN KHAHI, ON A BLUE AND GRAY BACKGROUND, MAKES A STRONG APPEAL



A GOOD COMBINATION OF ORANGE AND BROWN ON THIS 40 X 50-INCH POSTER



A CALL FROM THE FIRING LINE IN PINK, YELLOW, AND BLUE (40 X 50 INCHES)



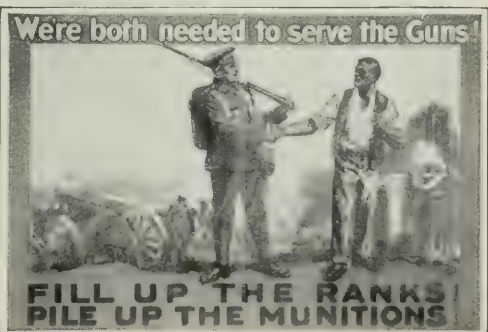
A STRONG EFFECT SECURED WITH YELLOW AND BLACK LETTERING ON A WHITE BACKGROUND



ST. GEORGE, ON A GRAY CHARGER, FIGHTING A GREEN DRAGON,—A DASH OF RED BRIGHTENING THE BACKGROUND

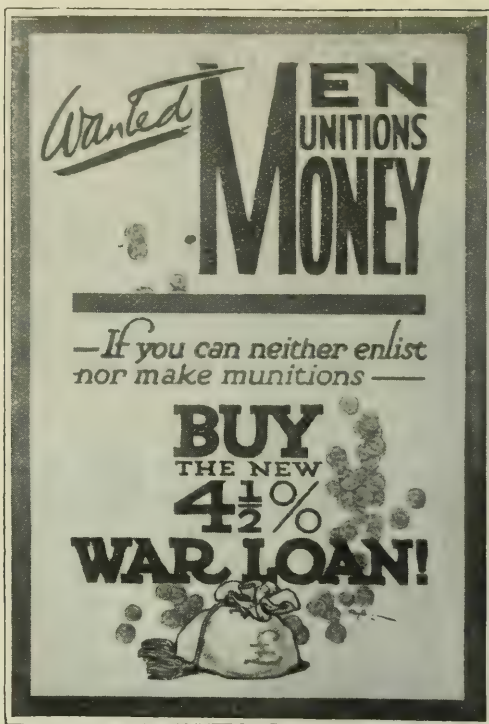


A VARIETY OF COLORS IS USED IN THESE 20 X 30-INCH POSTER APPEALS TO FILL UP THE RANKS IN THE ARMY AND IN THE AMMUNITION FACTORIES IN ENGLAND

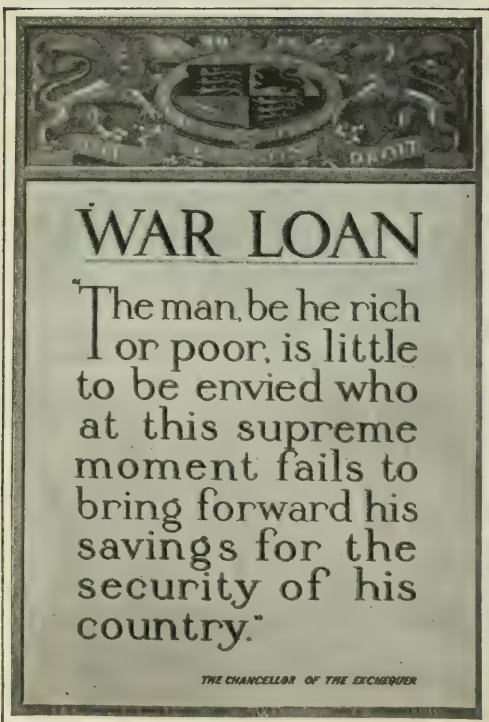




A STEEL-COLORED KEY, ON A YELLOW BACKGROUND, HEAVILY BORDERED IN RED, COMBINE TO MAKE A STRONG IDEA STRIKINGLY PUT



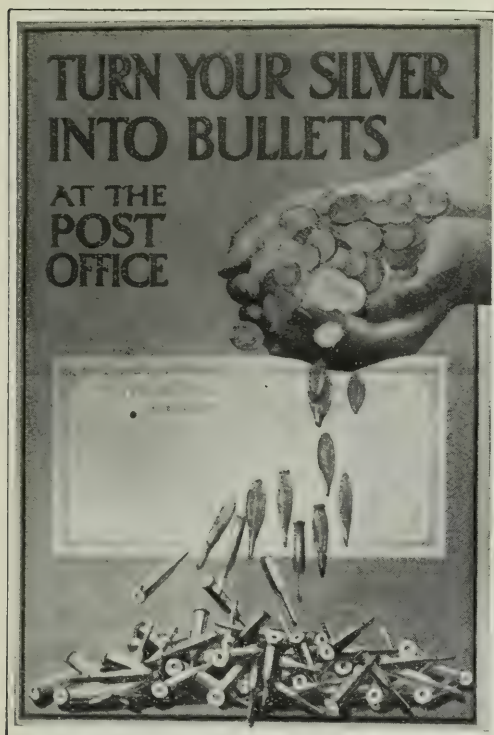
RED AND BLACK FOR THE LETTERING, AND GOLD FOR THE COINS, ARE THE MAIN COLORS IN THIS POSTER



HERE THE ROYAL ARMS IN COLORS HEAD AN APT QUOTATION ON A GRAY BACKGROUND



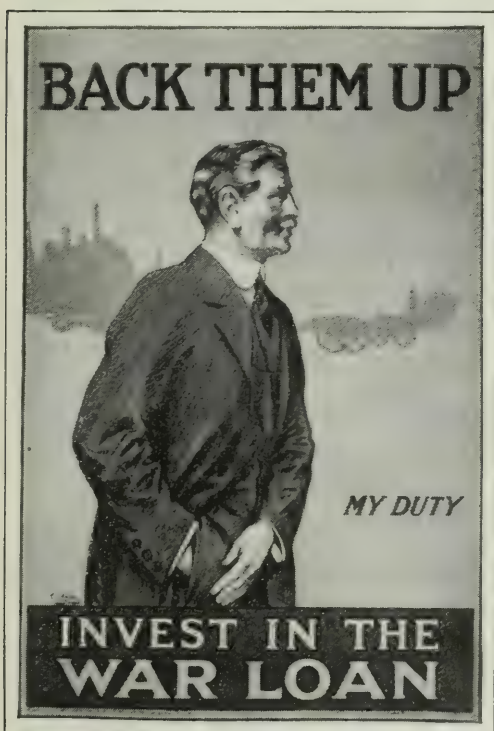
A STRONG APPEAL FOR SMALL AMOUNTS, DONE IN SILVER AND GRAY, WITH BLACK LETTERING



FROM "MONEY TO MUNITIONS," WITH FULL DIRECTIONS, INCLUDING A VOUCHER RECEIPT



THE BRITISH LION HERE MAKES AN EFFECTIVE BLACK FIGURE ON AN OLIVE BACKGROUND



AN APPEAL TO THE CITIZEN'S POCKET,—A BLUE A HANDSOME POSTER FOR THE WOMEN, IN BUFF, BLUE AND LAVENDER, THE LETTERING BROWN



A HANDSOME POSTER FOR THE WOMEN, IN BUFF, BLUE AND LAVENDER, THE LETTERING BROWN

**MOTHERS, WIVES AND
SWEETHEARTS**
Expect You to
PROTECT THEM

You May Do So With the

73RD

**ROYAL HIGHLANDERS
OF CANADA**

JOIN NOW At the **ARMOURY**
429 Bleury Street
MONTREAL

For Service Overseas
GOD SAVE THE KING

**HEROES OF ST. JULIEN
AND FESTUBERT**

*Here's to the Soldier who bled
To the Sailor that bravely did fa.
Their fame is alive, though their spirits have fled
On the wings of the Year that's awa.*



SHALL WE FOLLOW THEIR EXAMPLE?
APPLY AT RECRUITING STATION

THE CANADIAN POSTERS ARE SIMILARLY STRIKING IN DESIGN AND LETTERED WITH CATCHY LEGENDS. THE ENGLISH FLAG IS PROMINENT IN SOME OF THEM, WHILE IN APPEALING FOR RECRUITS FOR THE HIGHLANDER REGIMENTS SCOTCH PLAID COLORS ARE USED, AND IN OTHER POSTERS THE MAPLE LEAF, THE EMBLEM OF CANADA, APPEARS

**The Happy Man Today
is the Man at the Front**

**Royal
Highlanders
of
Canada**
Allied with the
**BLACK
WATCH**

Have Enlisted at their
Armoury for Overseas Service

13th Bn. C.E.F.
Now in France
42nd Bn. C.E.F.
Now in England
AND THE
73RD Bn. C.E.F.
is now Mobilizing



**JOIN
THE
73RD
NOW**

IF YOU WISH TO JOIN, WRITE TO
73RD ROYAL HIGHLANDERS OF CANADA
429 Bleury Street, Montreal

ARRANGEMENTS WILL BE MADE FOR LOCAL MEDICAL EXAMINATION AND TRANSPORTATION
TO MONTREAL



**GRENADIER
GUARDS
OVERSEAS BATTALION**

Class for training N.C.O.'s.
begins immediately.

APPLY AT

GUARDS' ARMOURY
ESPLANADE AVENUE

Pay and allowances begin at once.
This class is open to all. Previous
training not essential.

F. S. MEIGHEN, Colonel,
Temp. Guards Overseas Battalion



THE BRITISH BATTLE LINE ON THE WATER

WHAT SEA POWER MEANS TO ENGLAND IN THIS WAR

BY A. C. LAUT

IT is hard for the landsman to realize that the silent pressure of Sea Power may decide the ultimate issue of the Great War without any matched and pitched battle whatever.

It has been said that one single error in the Fleet might end the history of England; yet men have asked in wonder and scepticism,—where is the Fleet? What is it doing? Where are those boasted monsters of mystery that slip in and out of the fog, the watch-dogs of the Empire, bound whither and whence no man knows? Isn't this policy of secrecy being maintained too rigidly? We, the public, have paid the bill; and it has been a whale of a bill,—£1,000,000 in 1900 for dreadnoughts, £1,500,000 in 1905 for dreadnoughts plus some new wrinkles in guns and plating and speed; £2,700,000 in 1910 for superdreadnoughts, with such speed and hitting power as the world has never before known. We've paid the bill and whooped huzzas, and trusted the fate of the Empire to the Fleet. What's the Fleet doing? We have a right to know.

Just what the Fleet means to England is best appreciated when you remember that the German naval base is less than 375 miles from London, or 560 miles from the Firth of Forth, which is the base for the English North Sea Fleet. Put it another way! It would take the German Fleet less time to

reach England than it would take a New Yorker to hop on the train and reach Montreal. To be explicit, the fleets of the two greatest rival powers are only sixteen hours apart. Maxim says that a European power could land 200,000 men on the Atlantic shores of the United States a month before a defensive force,—naval and land,—could be mobilized to repel invasion. If that danger exists for the United States,—3000 miles, or ten days, away from hostile base,—how much greater is the danger to European powers at war only sixteen hours apart!

What the Fleet has been doing has already been guardedly answered by Premier Asquith. The fact that England has not been invaded is the silent work of the mysterious Fleet; and it hasn't been negative work. It has been positive, though every move has been shrouded in mystery and secrecy.

The Fleet has guarded the transport of 2,500,000 men. It has brought home more than half a million invalids. It has protected the carrying of 3,000,000 tons of food and supplies for Great Britain. It has made safe the conveying of 800,000 horses. It has ensured the Allies' supplies and munitions to the value of a billion and a half dollars. It has patrolled and policed the sea lanes of the world for a year and a half; so, though the most colossal war that ever shook the world

is in progress, the remotest sea lane outside for the same powers stood in the ratio of the mined areas is safe as in times of peace. 9 to 5, to 12; and that the submarines were

When war broke out, the price of wheat, ranked 76 for England with 20 building, 27 cotton, flour, foodstuffs generally suffered a for Germany with 12 building, or 171 for terrible slump from sheer fear. The ports England, France, and Russia with 61 build- of America were blockaded with exports from ing, against 37 for Germany and Austria sheer fear. Soon as it was apparent that the with 16 building. All the countries have Fleet could protect the sea lanes of the world, been building feverishly since the war be- wheat jumped 50 cents in price,—a gain of gan; and England's merchantmen have been almost \$200,000,000 to America,—cotton as great a source of strength as her navy. Of went from 6 cents to 12 cents,—flour from merchantmen, she has requisitioned 1500 \$6 to \$7.50 a barrel; and so all along the since the war began; and by seizure and line of what America had to sell to Europe. purchase, she added from her shipyards 179 That is what the Fleet meant to America. more war vessels. England's merchant fleet It swept the seas of the world clear of fear. ranked 20,000,000 tons to Germany's 5,-

What the Fleet meant to Germany is best evidenced by the fact that fifty-seven German and Austrian ships in the Mediterranean at once tied up in the harbors of Italy, sixty-six German and Austrian ships in the harbors of the United States, nine in Hawaii, some thirty-eight in the various ports of South America.

If the sea power of the Fleet had been as much of a myth as it was a mystery, 170 great ocean-going vessels would hardly have taken to their heels and scampered for safety to intern in neutral ports. Yet, at this time, not a shot had been fired. Outside the Admiralty and Navy, probably not a dozen people knew where the Fleet was; but there wasn't any doubt that it was. And there wasn't any doubt that it could fire some husky shots if it had to. Though the Fleet has guarded the sea lanes of the world for a year and a half, though it has chased commerce destroyers from the surface of the sea and from under the surface of the sea, its loss in men to date has been less than one-tenth of one per cent.

It doesn't mean very much to say that when the war broke out, England's dreadnoughts numbered 46 to Germany's 28, and France's 12, and Russia's 11, and Japan's 10, and Italy's 10; and that the battle cruisers

ranked 76 for England with 20 building, 27 for Germany with 12 building, or 171 for England, France, and Russia with 61 building, against 37 for Germany and Austria with 16 building. All the countries have been building feverishly since the war began; and England's merchantmen have been as great a source of strength as her navy. Of merchantmen, she has requisitioned 1500 since the war began; and by seizure and purchase, she added from her shipyards 179 more war vessels. England's merchant fleet ranked 20,000,000 tons to Germany's 5,000,000; and between interned ships and ships destroyed, Germany's merchant fleet to-day ranks nil. It has been swept absolutely and utterly from the seas. As to England's losses from submarines at time of writing, they have averaged up exactly one and one-sixth



THE RIGHT HON. A. J. BALFOUR, HEAD OF THE BRITISH ADMIRALTY



ADMIRAL SIR HENRY B. JACKSON, FIRST SEA LORD OF THE BRITISH NAVY

ships a day, of which, with the exception of one great liner and nine battleships, the majority have been small freighters and trawlers. Of trawlers and motorboats chasing out submarines, England has more than 3000 watchdogs busy on the sea.

But these figures mean little till you examine in what the power of the Fleet lies. There is one submarine now acting for the Allies in the Baltic of 5400 tons displacement, 400 feet long, with a cruising radius of 18,500 miles, with motor power for a cruise under surface of 275 miles, space for a crew of 120 men and torpedoes to the number of 60. You understand now why Germany cannot use her bottled-up Fleet to land troops on the Russian shores of the Baltic. When the war began, it was understood the submarine radius seldom exceeded 2000 miles and that no submarine could carry more than eight or ten torpedoes. If the lay mind wants it in dollar terms, the torpedoes used for the latest submarines cost from



ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY
(Commanding the first battleship
squadron)

SIR JOHN R. JELlicoe
(Admiral of the Fleet)

COMMODORE TYRWHITT
(Commander of the destroyers)

\$2000 to \$5000 each; so that if a submarine has to fire five shots for one hit, it is expensive sport.

Or take the use of electricity and oil increasing the power of the Fleet. Electricity and oil give a cruiser a wider radius than coal by 50 per cent. Smoke has always been the great betrayer. With oil and electricity for the motor power, and with smokeless explosives for ammunition, the Fleet of to-day moves silent, mysterious, almost unseen. The great dangers to-day are wireless, the eye in the sky,—the aeroplane, and the eye under the surface of the sea,—the periscope of the submarine. Mention should here be made of the Zeppelins. The Zeppelins have not been credited with much success in this war. The truth is the fleets of Zeppelins have hovered constantly over the North Sea, and have done as much to defend Germany's coast as the British Fleet has done to defend British shores. The ponderous sausage has justified itself. Maxim says a single shell from the huge gun of a superdreadnought has striking force to hoist a battleship the size of the *Oregon* clear six feet above the sea. A 12-inch projectile of 1000 pounds for a naval gun means a 50,000-tons blow at fifty feet,—a monster force never before known or dreamed of in warfare,—a force absolutely and utterly irresistible to any foe.

FIGHTING AT LONG RANGE

The fight in the North Sea began twelve miles away. When the *Bluecher* was struck, she was ten miles from her English enemy. When von Spee and Cradock fought off Chile, they opened fire at a distance of 12,-

000 yards; and Cradock had old-fashioned obsolete ships. If old-fashioned obsolete ships open fire at 12,000 yards, what the superdreadnoughts can do may be guessed. What they can do, experts say frankly, is throw a 2000-pound projectile twenty-five miles with such accurate range-finders that the deflection will be only twenty yards for six miles. In fact, the improvement and change in naval equipment has been so swift and revolutionary that the life of a battleship has been rated first rank for only five years. In speed, in size, in armor proof, and big gun fire, the changes have come so fast since 1905 that the nations had either to fight it out or cripple themselves financially building bigger and bigger monsters of the sea; and oddly enough, the changes all date from a little "cheese box on a floating saucepan," the *Monitor* of Civil War fame. From the time the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* spat out their fire-cracker shots at each other, it has been a race among the nations for speed, armor proof, big guns, and long range. Those best informed declare that the big gun and speed have rendered secondary both armor proof and submarine; but these are disputes that will be finally settled in the present war. Neither side has had any monopoly of courage. The courage of both sides has been magnificent,—almost terrible, but speed and the big gun have won.

When Cæsarism arose in the person of the Spanish King and challenged liberty in the days of Queen Elizabeth, the challenge was met and defeated on the sea. Likewise, when Cæsarism arose in the menace of Napoleon, the challenge was met on the sea; and in the same contest to-day the challenge will

be decided on the sea, though the Netherlands now as then bear the brunt of land fighting. Deadly hand-to-hand grapple, blood-drenched decks, and smoke clouded skies have passed forever as phases of great naval battles. When a projectile weighing a ton is fired from ten to twenty-five miles away, armor proof fuses to molten metal, and the stricken ship founders before an enemy appears. Future naval battles may be fought miles up in the air and miles down under the sea, with aeroplanes for eyes and wireless for ears, and submarines and destroyers for scouts, but they will be fought miles apart; and the ship with a four-mile range will never tempt odds with the ship of twenty-mile range. This is one reason Germany has kept her Fleet bottled up in the Baltic. The other reason is purely strategic. She has needed her Fleet in the Baltic to prevent the Russians from landing troops for the invasion of German territory.

TRAINING BATTLESHIP CREWS

If it is a puzzle to landmen to realize how the silent pressure of a monster invisible Fleet can determine a war without a pitched battle, it puzzles him still more to understand why the upbuilding of a navy requires years instead of months. The time required to build a dreadnought is usually given as about thirty months. Under stress, it is acknowledged by experts, a dreadnought might be completed in six months. Why, then, all this pother about years to build up a navy? If a battleship is simply a piece of huge mechanism, a man can learn to run a motor in a month; why not a dreadnought and the dreadnought's guns?

If you will recall your sensations the first time you let on speed when you meant to turn it off, and then steered for the telegraph pole you meant to miss, and if you will multiply the weight of an automobile motor by 28,000 times and the complication of its mechanism by 28,000 times; and if you will try to realize that instead of one life at risk in the motor there are from 700 to 1200 at risk on a modern battleship,—you have the answer to your question. It takes ordinarily five to eight years to make a skilled

mechanic; and every gunner on a battleship must be not only a skilled mechanic but almost a scientific expert. Naval men give the time required to train a crew for a battleship at five years, and that is scant enough when you consider that a projectile wrongly handled may cost a thousand lives. One of the worst accidents that ever occurred on a battleship arose from a false maneuver and one of the second worst arose from the failure to notice in the confusion of smoke at gun practice that a charge had not exploded. One moment the great ship *Bulwark* was a

humming hive of industry and life. Some fool dropped a torpedo where it did not belong. There was a flash of flame; and not a fragment of life or ship remained. This was only a few months ago. A monster superdreadnought is literally a volcano with a range of destruction for

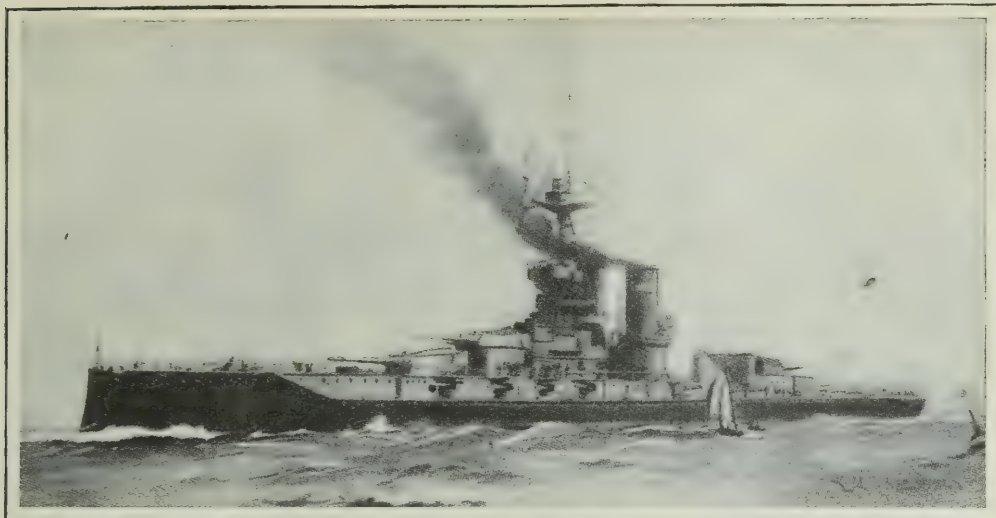


A BRITISH MONITOR DOING DUTY OFF THE BELGIAN COAST

twenty-five miles and a crew of 700 or 1500 sitting on the lid. A nation cannot afford to have greenhorns or panicky heads or jumpy nerves monkeying with a monster floating menace that stands for \$10,000,000 in value when all is well, and may stand for twice that in loss if anything goes wrong.

SUBMARINE VERSUS SUPERDREADNOUGHT

The question has again and again been asked whether the submarine does not mark the passing of the superdreadnought to the scrap heap. The big gun has certainly discounted armor proof. How about the submarine and the dreadnought? Sir Percy Scott in England and Admiral von Tirpitz in Germany certainly banked on the submarine as more powerful than the dreadnought, but there is not an expert living who would answer that question with finality to-day. To begin with, the submarine has only begun. What improvements may develop no one knows. At time of writing, the final word in submarines is the big fish in the Baltic; but that submarine may be discounted by a craft built to-morrow. The submarine has some terrible disadvantages. It has no eyes except in the daytime and does not seem able to develop any, such as searchlights, without betraying its own presence. A joke is told in this connection on



THE NEW BRITISH SUPERDREADNOUGHT, "QUEEN ELIZABETH," IN ACTION IN THE DARDANELLES

some of the cruiser crews. The captain of the submarine crew wagered the captain of the cruiser that he could follow cruisers and destroyers out to sea below the surface and come up on them unexpectedly. The wager was taken. The cruisers and destroyers proceeded out to the practice ground. All eyes were on the watch for the bubble-track on the surface of the sea that betrays a submarine below. Suddenly, word went round to look out for the periscope on one side. A bubbly trail seemed visible. "Hey—there! Hello!" shouted a voice on the other side; and the submarine lay rolling gently on the opposite side from the look-out given. A false dummy alarm of which the navy keeps the secret to itself had been given on the wrong side—a torpedo "fired round a corner" according to young Hays Hammond's invention of some other device to mislead an enemy.

Other great disadvantages of the submarine are slow speed. It can always be sighted from an aeroplane overhead. The quarters are cramped for the crew, and the atmosphere, especially when the submarine

must dive and rock at bottom—"go to sleep" is the technical phrase—becomes fearfully close, damp, cold and impregnated with gasoline that has a nasty headachy effect on the men. Though the crews decorate the ensign with skull and cross-bones for every

ship sunk, though they play bridge and set a gramophone going at the bottom of the sea when hidden from attack, the strain on the nerves is terrific. The stillness is palpable. The sense of unknown danger and utter isolation will unstring the strongest. Secrecy as to submarines is quite as much to preserve the morale of future crews as to hide the horrors of death by suffocation and strangulation when caught in the enemy's nets and sent to bottom for five days.

The most that any expert will venture on the dispute of submarine vs. superdreadnought is that to the present, the submarine has not superseded the big ships. It is a well-known fact in navy circles,—which Germany may deny as she will,—that between nets and submarine chasers armed with quick-range light guns, the British Fleet has "got",—to

use the seaman's expression,—over 84 per cent. of all Germany's submarines. This explains Germany's sudden compliance with the United States on modifications of the sea war. There are ugly stories going the rounds about the defeat of the submarine.

In justice both sides



THE IRONCLAD "MONITOR" OF THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

(The germ of the great floating fortresses like the *Queen Elizabeth*)

When the fleet and trawlers and chasers first began to capture the submarines, quarter was given to the captured crews. Because submarine warfare was held to be piracy, these men were not treated as prisoners of war. They were closely con-



A CANADIAN CONTRIBUTION TO THE ROYAL NAVY

fined. Then two things happened. The *Lusitania* was sunk. A submarine when captured broke the rules of war. It had been hauled to the surface. The crew were ordered to surrender. Their answer, whether in obedience to orders from Germany or not is not known,—was to hurl a bomb, which sent submarine and crew to suicidal destruction and endangered the victorious ship.

THE FATE OF SUBMARINE CREWS

Since which episodes,—the Fleet makes no apology, but acknowledges the fact—no quarter has been given submarine crews. "No quarter" is an ugly phrase. It means one of two things, death at pistol point, or slowly on the bottom of the sea. Half an hour after the *Hesperian* was torpedoed,—spite of the giff guff exchanged diplomatically on the subject—an English crew "had" the submarine. One story goes,—the captured were shot on the spot; the other, that they were bundled into the submarine prison and sunk to the bottom of the sea. It may be stated authoritatively that the majority of submarines captured in nets have been sunk and left at bottom five days before being towed in. One can hardly imagine a more

hideous death. The sword stroke would be merciful compared to slow strangulation; and the horror of fate in a submarine has been a potent influence in modifying submarine warfare. Someone has called submarine warfare "lynch law on the sea". If it is, Nemesis has overtaken the law-breaker in swift destruction that will never be told.

THE NAVAL PERSONNEL

Of the men who built up the Fleet to its present efficiency, little need be said. Their names are household words in the Empire. All are non-talking men, like the silent monsters they command, slipping in and out of the fog. Fisher, Scott, Jellicoe, Beatty, Cradock, Churchill, Wilson, Callaghan, Louis of Battenberg, King George, Hamilton,—are a few of the names that come up when you trace the development of the American idea of "a cheese box floating on a saucepan", up to the magnificent structures known as superdreadnoughts, which have been described as the most devastating implements of destruction devised by the mind of man.

The heroes of the war, themselves, are new names, the majority very young men, who shun publicity as the Fleet shuns news. Jellicoe, in supreme command, had been with the *Camperdown*, when that false move caused the fearful Mediterranean tragedy. He had been a great gun specialist and one of the creators of the monsters which he commands. Churchill has received the most abuse, first, because he was a civilian, second because he was a minister of the crown and disappointment could be vented on him; but it must not be forgotten Churchill was the man who had the Fleet mobilized and the watch dogs of the seas at their post, when the war broke out. It may be said that without authority from the Cabinet or coöperation of the Cabinet, he prevented the invasion of England; and the Cabinet has accordingly never forgiven him. The truth



THE ARMORED CRUISER "ESSEX" WHICH HAS BEEN USED FOR PATROLLING THE AMERICAN COAST



© Underwood & Underwood, New York

A BRITISH WARSHIP IN THE DARDANELLES

(The peculiar coloring on the sides of the vessel is due to the new war paint used for purposes of disguise)

of the mistakes at the Dardanelles with which the Fleet is but the nerve center of the he is charged has never been given to the Marine. public.

Fisher was the picturesque figure. Asked once about "the humanizing of war", he answered: "You might as well talk of humanizing hell. When a silly ass at The Hague got up and talked civilized warfare, putting your prisoner's feet in hot water and giving him gruel, my reply was totally unfit for print. As if war ever could be civilized! If I am in command when war breaks out, I shall issue as my orders,—Moderation is imbecility. Hit first! Hit hard! Hit everywhere! I think the best epitaph is,—'death found him fighting'."

When one asks why an officer, who has uttered these brave words, drew down the blinds of his town house and went off to Scotland in the sulks, you must make a distinction sharp and clear as to England's sea-power in time of war. England's sea power has three departments: the Admiralty, which is officialdom, the Polonius type, full of platitudinous red-tape talk and most damnably inefficient,—the barnacled dead-head and wharf-rotted derelict: the Fleet, which is the fighting nerve of sea power; the Merchant Marine, which covers the seas and feeds its supply of men and brains and brawn into the Fleet. Before a nation can be great on the sea, it must love the sea and be born to it and cradled on it and bred up to it. That is England's Merchant Marine; and

BLUNDERS OF THE ADMIRALTY

Where blunders have occurred,—and terrible blunders have occurred in spite of the veil of secrecy discreetly dropped—they have emanated from the dunderheads of the Admiralty. For instance, I know of cases where boat-loads of motor-trucks from the United States were needed most desperately at the front to transport ammunition. Yet because some Admiralty dunderhead suffering from a plethora of blood and self-esteem higgled and haggled over an order to show his power, those ship-loads of motor-trucks lay at anchor unloaded in a harbor of France for one month. Now, any big shipper knows that an idle ship loses \$5000 a day in these times. Figure out a month's loss yourself!



© International News Service, New York

A MINE-SWEEPING TRAWLER

(Used in the North Sea and Dardanelles)

Or take another higgie-haggle over the cost of chain! When the submarine war began and the seas were seeded with mines, England was desperate for chains to sweep the seas. By a great effort an American shipper got his hands on 60,000 tons of chain. The Admiralty fat-heads dickered and dockered for three months over a difference in price of one-quarter of a cent a pound,—or say \$500,000. They wanted it for \$300,000 less. In the interval of 90 days, 78 British cargo ships were sunk by mines and submarines. Figure the loss from those Admir-



©Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE TORPEDO-BOAT DESTROYER "SWIFT"—WITH A
SPEED OF 36 KNOTS AN HOUR

alty gentlemen for yourself! One can imagine Fisher's comment not being fit for print; and as he was past the age for active sea service, it wasn't unnatural he went to Scotland.

WHAT THE FLEET ACTUALLY DID

And now on a basis of concrete fact, what has the Fleet done? It has kept the sea lanes open. It has made possible the feeding of England in spite of war. It has kept the doors of the sea open to almost \$2,000,000,000 worth of American exports to Europe. It has also held up \$14,000,000 worth of pork products from the United States destined for Germany. It has held back,—when exaggerations are discounted—\$15,000,000 of Austrian and German goods destined for the United States. The exact value of American cotton detained, I have never seen stated; but the fact that cotton stands at a price of 12 cents plus shows that the detention has not seriously depressed values.

But how has the Fleet done all this?

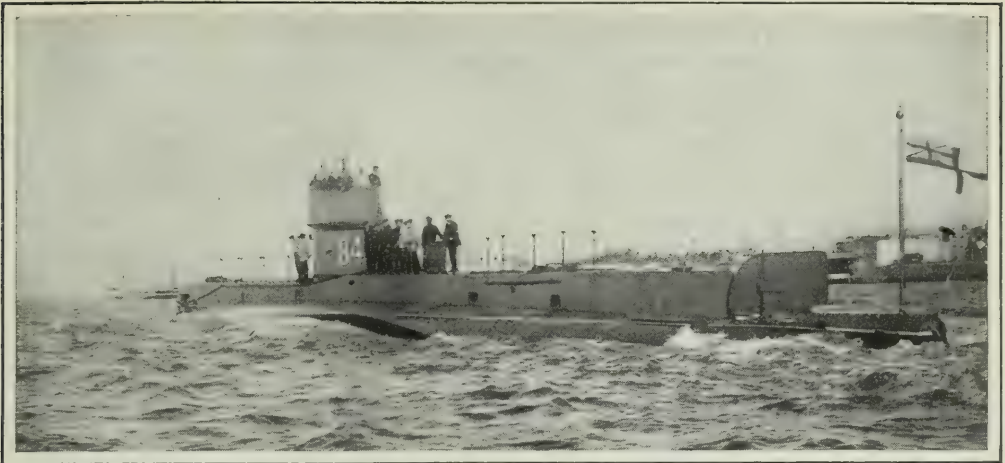
Begin with the mobilization! And this narrative must be condensed.

The British Navy had held its annual maneuvers in July of 1914. These terminated on the 25th of July. Everything was ready for the usual dispersion of men and ships when suddenly, on the 26th, Churchill, unauthorized, issued orders for the Fleet not to disperse. War was declared by Austria on Serbia on July 28th. On the 29th, every British ship in commission without any alarm or fanfare of trumpet was ploughing through the water to her appointed station of defense. The bands played and there was some cheering. That was all. No one apprehended the unusual. The Fourth Squadron under Cradock left for Mexico. The Mediterranean Fleet hid to Malta. All the men knew was a wireless that caught them at Gibraltar saying Germany had declared war on Russia. Amid intense silence on the night of August 4, the declaration of British war against Germany was read to the astonished crews.

As it developed afterwards, the German commerce-raiders had been sent out by wireless simultaneously. How did Churchill know? England may nag at this bumptious, dominant young statesman, who never seems to have grown up from being an aggressive, tactless boy. All the same, she owes the fact that her commerce was not raided off the seas to "the cheeky beggar" who mobilized the Fleet on the dot. Reservists hurried to their stations. The Fleet was on a war footing the night of August 3, and in a word said to Germany,—“Now, go ahead.” Fifteen hundred merchant vessels had been requisitioned. Forts were manned. Patrol boats were sent out on the channels of commerce; and by wireless, Germany sent her big liners scurrying for safety to neutral ports. Sir John Jellicoe was appointed to supreme command.

CLEARING THE SEA OF MINES

Early on August 5 it was discovered that the channels of the sea round the British Isles were being seeded with German mines; and fishing trawlers were organized into mine-sweeping fleets. The Admiralty took over all battleships building in British yards, two for Turkey, two destroyers for Chile, and oddly enough some shallow river monitors for Brazil, which later did great work along the Belgian coast, getting close in, where the big ships could not approach. These seized ships were all, of course, well paid for; and the charter rate for the requisitioned ships ran above all prices ever known in shipping circles. I could tell of one great line of Atlantic ships paid at the rate of



A STERN VIEW OF A LARGE BRITISH SUBMARINE

almost \$75,000 a month. Two submarines building in the United States for Chile were bought for Canada and placed on guard along the Pacific Ocean.

First blow fell on the *Königin Luise*, caught at 9 A. M. on August 5, laying sea-mines off Suffolk. Two English torpedo-boats sank her on the spot with exactly four shots, two in the bridge; one in the bows, a fourth in the propeller. The cruiser *Amphion* was returning from this very chase when she struck one of the mines. She was going at 20 knots. A sheet of flame enveloped the ship. The commander, Captain Fox, was knocked senseless. When he recovered consciousness, the ship's back was broken and she was settling. Twenty minutes after the mine was struck, all hands had lowered away. Another sheet of flame shot up from a second mine; and debris falling on the life-boats killed two seamen and also a German prisoner taken off the *Luise*. In a quarter of an hour more, all was over.

This gives an idea of what the Fleet was doing. It was not lying idle, however silent it may have been, in the mists of secrecy.

The trawlers and mine-sweepers and drifters now began working night and day to clear the mines. Small men-of-war hung by to protect them; but in the mist many a mine-sweeper was sunk by German raiders. On September 3, a second British war-ship struck a mine off the east coast and sank. Two 5000-ton cruisers were missed in December; and bodies washed ashore on the North Coast of Ireland were the only secret of the loss given up by the sea. Reports of trawlers sunk came in almost weekly,—toll of the Fleet taken by the sea for England's

safety, and more than England's safety, for the safety of every traveler who traversed British waters, for every pound of freight passing to or from America. By October, fifteen merchant vessels had been destroyed by German mines and sixty persons of neutral nationality had perished. Of the merchant vessels eight were British, five Danish, one Norwegian, one Swedish.

Henceforth began the lawless sea war. By November, it was found waters had been mined clear northwest of Ireland. They had not been laid by a German ship of war; for British cruisers had been on the watch. The British Admiralty issued warning of "merchant vessels flying a neutral flag" doing this work. Up to May, twelve British merchant vessels and twenty-one trawlers were destroyed by these mines.

WORK OF THE SUBMARINES

The submarine had become active in August, too. The *U 15* was rammed and sunk by a British cruiser; but the most startlingly bold thing happened on September 5, in the Firth of Forth,—the *Pathfinder*, a light cruiser, in the afternoon sank so suddenly that only fragments of wreckage were ever found. The German *U 21* had torpedoed her; and within three weeks, three more cruisers were torpedoed off the Dutch coast by the *U 9*. This submarine was, itself, destroyed in March. The cruisers sunk were the *Aboukir*, the *Hogue*, the *Cressy*. The two latter could have saved themselves but went to the aid of the *Aboukir*; and sixty officers and 1400 men were lost. They saw the periscope of the attacking submarine and put on full speed to ram it down.

A second periscope poked up. The three torpedoes were fired at intervals of twenty seconds and at distances of 500 to 600 yards. In October, the *U 9* got yet a fourth cruiser,—the *Hawke* off the North of Scotland. The ruse here was to pretend to attack a seemingly neutral vessel. The *Hawke* dashed to the rescue and got the shot,—the neutral vessel disappeared as if by magic. It was on this occasion that the submarine fired at men escaping on a raft. On October 31, another cruiser was sunk in the Downs.

The sinking of the battleship *Formidable* on New Year's Day in the English Channel literally paralyzed the world. She had been hit by two torpedoes from a submarine. Captain Loxley signalled ships that would have rushed to the rescue "to stand off from the danger". By trawlers and rowboats some seventy-one of the crew were saved. A destroyer was sunk in May, and the submarine war reached its culmination in the sinking of the *Lusitania* with its appalling toll of life. Sometime in March, an auxiliary cruiser had been sunk; for wreckage was found off Belfast. Of naval men, 2854 had been lost in submarine attacks; of civilians some 1500 to 1700 as far as known.

Meantime, England instituted her closed blockade of Germany. Precautions were taken against submarines. Three thousand chasers,—trawlers, motor boats, destroyers—scoured and swept the seas. By August, 84 per cent. of Germany's submarines had failed to return to their bases. Four submarines destined for the American side of the Atlantic never turned up. A base was picked on the shores of Canada; but the submarines never came out; and a curious unspoken apprehension shook the morale of Admiral von Tirpitz's crews. Why were the crews not coming back? This story may some day be revealed by the British Admiralty,—that is, half the story may be told. The other half of the story lies at the bottom of the sea.

But if this work was chiefly accomplished by the trawlers and motor sweeps, what was the Fleet doing? What had become of the *Audacious* up north of Scotland and Ireland? The ship struck something and sank so quickly no examination could be made. It is understood all hands escaped. Some sixty ships with Australian troops had been convoyed across the Pacific. Some forty ships had brought troops from Canada, and some fifty ships had hurried troops from India. Yet convoy work and submarine hunting were only incidentals of the Fleet's duties. So

was the guarding of the passing of 2,500,000 troops to the Continent without a single loss. In fact at time of writing, the only troop ship lost has been on the way to the Dardanelles. The reports to the Admiralty characterize these various duties as "a slight liveliness." The report may be said not to exaggerate the situation; for the Fleet was still more active off Chile, on Indian waters, off South America eastward, and on the North Sea.

RAIDS AND COUNTER-RAIDS

These various naval actions need not be retold. They are well known. The only evidence of the German Fleet was in the raids at Yarmouth, Scarborough, and Whitby. Admiral Beatty and five other officers, on August 28, led a flotilla of cruisers and destroyers into Heligoland Bight and destroyed two German cruisers. The engagement was at a distance of two miles. English submarines were not idle. Commander Horton under the guns of Heligoland torpedoed the yacht of the German commander-in-chief. She sank in an hour. The British submarine then entered the mouth of the Ems and sank a German destroyer. It was the work of these British submarines that protected the transport of the British troops to the Continent. Horton's raid did not lack thrills. He was chased. He dived and "sat in the mud". He came up again. German cruisers were all about in a flock. He popped again and did not come up for air for six hours; but he sank two destroyers and kept the Germans off the transport ships. In October, the British cruiser *Undaunted* and four destroyers sank four German ships off the Dutch Coast. It was at this stage that the Brazilian monitors did heavy bombardment work along the flank of the German Army, and helped to prevent the advance to Calais. They also stopped the building of a submarine base on the Dutch Coast. It is supposed the Germans raided the east coast of England at this time to divert the North Sea Fleet from bottling the Baltic. The design failed and an armored German cruiser struck a chain of mines and sank in the fog.

Five weeks later, on January 24, Vice-Admiral Beatty got his chance at the raiders, four battle cruisers, six light cruisers and destroyers. They were sighted making for the British coast. Soon as they saw Beatty's squadron, fourteen miles away, they headed for home at high speed. The *Blucher* was sunk and two German battle cruisers badly damaged. It was a tail chase at 29-knots

pace and at 17,000 yards, the English shots told home. Speed and the long-range gun won for the British. The feed tank of a British ship was damaged and an engineer was killed. In the Baltic, Russia protected her coast, sank a cruiser and lost a cruiser. France took care of the Mediterranean, and only two German cruisers were here,—the *Goeben* and the *Breslau*. They passed into the Dardanelles; and a British officer was tried for their escape; but he was acquitted. The *Goeben* was ultimately disabled by Russia in the Black Sea. In December, a British submarine under Lieutenant Holbrooke passed through the Straits under five rows of Turkish mines and destroyed a Turkish battleship. It was here the British battleships *Irresistible* and *Ocean* were sunk by floating mines.

The commerce-raiding of the *Emden* and her destruction by the Australian Fleet, the defeat of Cradock by von Spee off Chile, and of von Spee by Sturdee off the Falklands, have been given fully to the public by the press and need not be repeated. Cradock was defeated in November because his four ships were met by superior, more modern ships; and von Spee in turn was outnumbered and defeated by Vice-Admiral Sturdee with five armored vessels and two cruisers. In each case, victory went to the side with the long-range guns.

The raids of commerce destroyers and the duels of armed merchantmen are a story by themselves thrilling as any old-world tale of corsair and pirate. The great *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* went down in one of these duels. Sixty armed merchantmen chased the

German commerce raiders off the seas. The *Emden* had sunk seventeen British merchantmen before she was caught. Another German commerce raider,—the *Karlsruhe*—had sunk seventeen British vessels. Her end like the *Audacious* is a mystery. The other German raiders interned at Newport News.

SEA POWER THE DECISIVE FACTOR

Reading of these raids and counter raids and duels of armed corsairs on the high seas, it is hard to realize this is the twentieth and not the fourteenth century; but it is not hard to know what the Fleet is doing. The one thing that stands out in the fearful war is that while the land fighting may be a draw in which each side bleeds slowly to death, sea power remains what it has always been,—the deciding factor. The war has given the greatest impetus to marine interest in the United States known for a hundred years. Every ship-yard in Europe is working feverishly; and every ship-yard in the United States is booked ahead for four years. By the law of neutrality, the United States cannot build vessels for belligerents; but she has built parts for ten submarines, which have been put together in the yards of Montreal; and she has built other vessels which will be delivered after the war. This is something that has not happened since 1854. The impetus is evident in the United States Navy estimates for 1916. Sea power stands out as the dominant factor of the war. Whether that sea power is as great a menace to the freedom of the seas of the world as the piracy of a submarine war,—remains for the world to say.



THE FORMIDABLE FLEET OF GREAT BRITAIN, ASSEMBLED FOR THE ROYAL REVIEW AT SPITHEAD.
AN IMPRESSIVE VIEW OF THE GREATEST NAVY IN THE WORLD



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SERBIAN CAVALRY ON THE MARCH



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A SERBIAN CAMP, SHOWING A BOY OF TWELVE YEARS OF AGE (ON THE LEFT OF THE PICTURE) WHO IS FIGHTING FOR HIS COUNTRY

DIPLOMACY AND BATTLE IN THE BALKANS

WITH AN ACCOUNT OF ITALY'S CAMPAIGN

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. THE WAR GOES SOUTH

IN November the great Allied offensive in the West dropped to mere fitful cannonading, the great drive was over, and it had amounted to a local success in Champagne and a smaller local triumph in Artois. The German lines had neither been pierced nor broken. On the other hand, the Germans, having brought many divisions from the Russian front, made desperate but unsuccessful attempts to regain lost ground. Aside from very minor incidental successes,—a trench here, a hilltop there,—they failed with heavy losses, and the deadlock remained.

On the Eastern front the life went out of the German effort about Riga. By mid-November German bulletins conceded the abandonment of some positions along the Dwina, the Russians claimed material successes on the south in the thin strip of Galicia remaining to them, including 130,000 prisoners, a ten weeks' bag. Everywhere they were on the offensive, but nowhere did their offensive yet achieve material results. But it was unmistakable that what had occurred in France after the Marne and the Yser was taking place in Russia. The Slavs, like the French, had escaped destruction, were beginning to come back, making their first pushes against the German positions, wholly similar to the first "nibbles" of the Allies in the West many months before.

German newspapers and military writers now recognized the fact that the effort to put Russia out of the running had failed. They recognized it by comments which showed Russia on the offensive and still determined to push the war. They recognized it by their comments on the new Balkan campaign, in which they agreed that the promise of "victorious peace" was now to be seen. In sum, in the West, November made it patent that any Allied intention to break through the German lines had failed com-

pletely of its greater purpose, despite local successes, and in the same fashion established the fact that the German campaign to eliminate Russia had equally definitively failed after far greater successes. To the deadlock in the West there had been added now the deadlock in the East.

Meantime the great German drive to the Golden Horn occupied the attention of the whole world. In France a cabinet fell because of the failure of Allied diplomacy at Athens and Sofia. In Great Britain there was a political crisis, which ended without a change of ministry but in a remaking of military organization, the first signs of which were the visit of Joffre to London and of Kitchener to the Mediterranean.

On the whole, the area of British discontent and disappointment was greater than ever before since the war began. Yet out of both the French and British crises there emerged unmistakable proof that the determination of the French and British peoples was unshaken, that there was no promise or thought of peace. In Briand France called her ablest man, and Briand reaffirmed Viviani's pledge of war until Alsace-Lorraine as well as Belgium was reclaimed, while Sir Edward Grey again repeated Asquith's famous declaration of the inflexible purpose of Britain to dictate peace on the ruins of Prussian militarism, when Belgium had been freed and France made secure.

From Germany by indirect and direct routes rumors of peace continued to flow,—peace which was still described as "victorious," but peace founded on conditions discoverable only to German eyes and disclosing the growing longing of the German people for an end of strife. With these rumors came reports of suffering from food shortage, the description of new regulations to conserve food products, culminating in the taking over by the government of all food supplies. Maximilian Harden's frank state-

ment, "the German people is in distress," was the most tangible evidence of the situation. Even in the face of this, the world believed German scarcity was exaggerated, but in it was found new Allied confidence that the British blockade was at last making itself felt positively as well as negatively.

Turning now to the main military operation, I shall try to describe briefly the apparent reasons for the third great German bid for decision, the march on Constantinople, the attitude of Greece, Bulgaria, and Rumania, the failure of Allied diplomacy and the progress of the campaign itself. I shall also summarize the Italian campaign, which was marked by very severe fighting, particularly on the Isonzo front.

II. GERMANY'S PURPOSE

Everyone is sufficiently familiar now with the two great efforts of German military strategy, to recognize both their character and their failure, that is, their failure as means to end the war by decisive victory. The first blow, that at France, failed at the Marne and the Yser, but left all Belgium and some 8000 square miles of France, the great industrial and mining regions, in German hands.

The second blow, against Russia, finally failed at Vilna in August, when the Slavs evaded the last and most dangerous enveloping movement, but this campaign left all Poland, the Courland, and a considerable portion of Old and White Russia in German hands,—above 125,000 square miles.

Only England of the original foes had so far escaped any serious harm. The submarine campaign had failed. The Zeppelin raids had proven useless as military operations. Safe in her islands, Great Britain was following her ancient course and supplying the enemies of a continental foe with money, with supplies, with growing land forces, while using her fleet to suffocate the economic life of the enemy and to help sweep up his outlying colonies. As England had so far escaped injury, there could be no peace with her on German terms until Britain had been seriously hurt. How could this be done?

The only possible approach to Britain was through British colonies accessible by land. These were Egypt and India. If Serbia were conquered and Bulgaria enlisted, the road from Berlin to the Golden Horn would be open to German munitions and officers, and these would meet the needs of thousands of Turkish troops lacking in arms, ammunition,

or trained leaders. Once this help were supplied, Turkish attack under German direction might be directed against Egypt by Suez, against India by the valleys of the Euphrates and the Tigris. One campaign would revive the strategy of Napoleon, the other the memories of Alexander the Great.

For the British Empire the Germans have always rightly maintained that Suez is the most vital point, the "Heel of Achilles," to use their phrase. Egypt conquered, the Suez Canal closed, India would be isolated, British rule in North Africa destroyed. Turkish expeditions would be able to push east along the route of Mohammedan conquest to Tripoli, Tunis, and Algeria, and first British and then French and Italian colonial power would be imperilled, alike by invading armies and revolting subjects still faithful to Islam.

Under the shadow of such a catastrophe, before Egypt were lost or India menaced by invasion and by insurrection, already suggested in November reports, Britain might consent to make peace. To save her empire she might agree to betray her Allies,—every German believes implicitly in the legend of "perfidious Albion"—or she might persuade her stricken Allies to join in the appeal for a peace which would give Germany much in territory, but leave them territorially undiminished save in the case of Russia. For colossal indemnities German armies would agree to evacuate Belgium and France.

For ten years Napoleon had striven to reach Great Britain in his fight for world empire. To England belongs the responsibility for his final destruction, because Britain alone, immune from attack, could give financial and other support to his enemies. England was playing the same rôle again with the same success. The war had become a duel between Germany and Great Britain. If Great Britain were brought to terms Germany's other foes might be expected to seek peace, but unless Britain were struck, or at least threatened and terrified into a peace, then numbers, wealth, and sea power would ultimately win against William II. as they had against Napoleon.

Here is the foundation of German strategy. The campaign through Serbia to the Golden Horn is a blow aimed at Great Britain, an effort to strike at the foundations of the British Empire and compel peace by bringing to reason the one foe still free from any scars of German invasion or any wounds incident to German occupation. In going to Constantinople the Germans opened a new field and took on a fresh campaign,

because it was the single avenue of approach to Britain and until Britain was reached, until the British Empire was threatened, it was clear to them peace was impossible.

It is necessary to recognize that German writers expected and expect that the threat will have the effect desired without a protracted campaign, they expect to make peace at Cairo, not Bombay; on the Nile, not the Ganges, but to understand the campaign it must be accepted as a blow at Great Britain, which is of small importance in the whole war, if it ends with the conquest of the Balkans or the temporary domination of Turkish Anatolia.

III. BULGARIA

Two things combine to explain the Allied diplomatic disaster in the Balkans,—the failure of the Gallipoli campaign and the complete misunderstanding of the Bulgarian situation, which was at all times the key to the diplomatic problem of the Balkans. The failure at the Dardanelles resulted in a loss of prestige that was fatal, because, coupled with the Russian disasters and the deadlock in the West, it gave rise to the conviction that Germany was bound to win. The mistakes at Sofia left Serbia helpless and beyond reach of aid when the true Bulgarian purpose was disclosed.

Now the situation in Bulgaria resulted from two things. Its King, who was complete master, is a former Austrian subject who remains in sympathy and in loyalty Austrian. His ambition was to make Bulgaria the Prussia of the Balkans and his hope was and is to be crowned Czar in St. Sophia, Czar of the restored Byzantine Empire. This ambition explains the Second Balkan War. It led to complete Bulgarian disaster, because Russia, hitherto the champion of Bulgaria, refused to support Ferdinand, permitted Rumania to attack Bulgaria, and thus brought the defeat, which led to the inglorious Treaty of Bucharest, by which Bulgaria was shorn of most of her conquests.

Into this war Ferdinand had been driven by his own ambition and by the urgings of Vienna, which hoped to destroy the Balkan League, a Russian creation, to undermine Russian influence in the Balkans, and pave the way for Austrian advance through Serbia to Constantinople and Salonica. After disaster Ferdinand might have lost his throne but for Austrian aid,—aid which he promised to pay for at the proper time and has now paid for in full. But the great disaster



THE BALKAN COUNTRIES

(Showing the route of the Austro-German advance through Serbia [along the railroad and valley] to Bulgaria and thence to the relief of Turkey. The map also helps one to understand the vital interest of neutral Greece and Rumania in the Serbian campaign)

to Ferdinand's hopes was a similar disaster to the Bulgarian aspirations, founded upon the dream of regaining the Macedonia which anciently had been Bulgar, and occupying the Egean coast from the Struma to the Maritza.

By the Treaty of Bucharest something over one million Bulgars were turned over to Greek, Serb, and Rumanian. For this treaty there was Russian warrant and no protest from London and Paris. Henceforth the task of the Bulgar was to regain lost provinces, to have vengeance on Serb and Greek. Until Macedonia and the Kavala-Drama district were regained, there could be no thought of permanent peace or friendly relations with his neighbors.

All this the Allied statesmen only partially grasped. After Turkey entered the war they came to the Balkans with a purpose to restore the old Balkan League by persuading Serbia to give up most of Macedonia and Greece, to surrender Kavala and Drama for promises of territory elsewhere. What Serb and Greek knew was that Bulgaria was pledged to the Austrians in any event and all the smooth promises and pledges of Sofia were merely to gain time. What the Allies would not recognize was that there was no hope in Sofia.

Accordingly they persuaded Serbia to make concessions, but Greece would make

none, and Allied urgings resulted in a distinct loss of Allied influence. Kavala was a Greek town. The Drama district had been won by battle. Venizelos, in seeking to persuade his countrymen to yield these cities, lost his hold upon Greece. King Constantine, also the champion of the Germans, outmaneuvered the Allies by playing upon national desire to hold gained territory, largely Greek in population.

At the appropriate moment Ferdinand threw off the mask, mobilized his armies, and prepared to strike Serbia and stretch out a hand to meet the advancing Germans. The Allies, who had failed to see that this was bound to come, were taken unprepared. They had no armies available to go to the aid of Serbia. They could only rely upon Greece, promise Greece provinces in Asia Minor and islands in the Egean; but Greece had to weigh these against the immediate peril of Bulgar and German armies. Against the Allied promise she could also weigh the pledge of the Kaiser that a neutral Greece would not be troubled.

Thus Bulgaria struck. Greece failed to fulfil the mission expected of her and the ruin of Serbia became inevitable. Always, in attempting to understand the Balkan situation, it must be recognized that for long months Ferdinand continued to convince the Allies that for a price that they might offer, he would enlist with them, that he deceived and fooled them completely, and at the proper time, having taken a *pourboire* from Turkey in the shape of the western bank of the Maritza, giving him a railroad on his own territory to the Egean, proceeded to fulfil his promises to Austria.

IV. GREECE

In the case of Greece there was a distinct and decisive popular sentiment in favor of the Allies among the people. The King and his Queen, who was the sister of the Kaiser, were wholly German in their leanings, but Venizelos, the great Cretan statesman, was supreme in the Hellenic Parliament and the advantage was all with the Allies.

This advantage they sacrificed when they attempted to restore the old Balkan confederacy and asked Greece to sacrifice a province to this end. Greece was ready to enlist, she was willing to fight for the Allies, but her enemy was Bulgaria. She knew that Bulgaria meant to take Salonica some day. She knew that Ferdinand was pledged to the Austrians. She realized that her future

was imperilled if Bulgaria were increased at her expense. She had asked of the Allies that in return for her aid they guarantee her integrity and they had replied by proposing her partition.

Venizelos believed the price was worth paying in view of the gains in sight. He saw Allied protection against both Bulgar and Italian, and he recognized that the Italian, already seated in Rhodes and the Dodecanesus, as well as at Valona, was the true menace to Hellenism. He might have prevailed had the Allies now entering the Gallipoli campaign succeeded, but instead, while the Greek elections were still in progress, the King having dissolved parliament to prevent Greek enlistment, the Allied fleet met with disaster and the naval campaign was abandoned.

Venizelos came back to power, but only with the understanding that neither Kavala nor Drama should be surrendered. Again Greece was to be had, if the Allies were prepared to have done with the bargaining with Bulgaria. Serbia, now reorganized and ready, asked permission to attack Bulgaria and Greece would have followed. But the Allies hesitated, still believing Ferdinand was playing fair. While they hesitated the land operations at the Dardanelles were undertaken and led to new defeat. Instead of easy conquest there was instant check and permanent deadlock. Greek soldiers and Greek citizens beheld with amazement Anglo-French troops failing against the troops they had defeated with ease two years before. In addition, to swell the account, German victories over Russia began to fill the world and the speedy elimination of Russia seemed in sight.

After the Allied defeat at the Dardanelles there is little reason to believe that there was any chance of enlisting Greece. The King, popular with the army, exerting great power in consequence, was committed to Germany. His people were still warmly in sympathy with the Allies, but only ready to fight if their own existence was insured, and this the Allies never did insure. They believed to the last that Greece would be forced to fight on their side in the remote contingency that Bulgaria took the Kaiser's shilling, and they refused to believe what Greece knew, that Ferdinand was already in the pay of the Austro-Germans.

When the crisis came, when Bulgaria mobilized, preparatory to attacking Serbia, Greece mobilized, too. Constantine was perfectly willing to have the army in his own

hands. But when the Allies, having a few paltry thousands of troops available, invited Greece to go to the aid of Serbia, in advance of their coming, then the King dismissed Venizelos. His own sympathies doubtless dictated his action, but who can blame any king, with Belgium's fate in his eyes, for declining to risk bringing upon his country the ruin that has afflicted Belgium?

Had the Allies taken the precaution to put 200,000 men in Salonica before Bulgaria mobilized, Venizelos might possibly have prevailed; the Greek people would not have been faced with the danger of fighting the Central Powers, with Bulgaria thrown in, before Allied troops had arrived. Not alone their own fortunes, not alone those of Serbia, but the political power of their best and truest friend in the Near East, Venizelos, was sacrificed by Allied blundering, which cannot be excused and can hardly be satisfactorily explained.

Greece did permit the Allies to send troops to the Serbs. She could only prevent it at grave peril, because all her coasts are open and a quarter of her population live on islands. She was at the mercy of the Allies, but here her assistance ended. Conceivably great Allied victories in the Balkans may enlist her, but such enlistment will probably come only after victory had made Greek help unnecessary. At the critical moment Greece might have thrown 250,000 troops into the field against Bulgaria and saved Serbia, but she would have risked all and she saw, first, that no considerable Allied troops were at hand and, second, that, in a similar situation Belgium has been ruined, nay more, Serbia was about to be destroyed, because of trust in Allied promises.

V. RUMANIA

Rumania's part in all the negotiations remains more obscure. Yet it is plain that under certain circumstances she might have been enlisted. Before the Russian disaster she had named her terms,—Bukovina, Transylvania, the Banat. But Russia had claimed part of Bukovina for herself and a portion of the Banat for Serbia. While the negotiations proceeded Russian disaster arrived. With the disaster there was an end to Rumanian participation for the moment.

With the entrance of Bulgaria and the advance of the Austro-German armies, however, a new situation arose. Under Teuton hegemony Bulgaria now threatened to become the great power of the Balkans. She

was resolved to take from Rumania the Dobrudja districts seized by Rumania in the Second Balkan War. A victorious Austria, too, would mean the end of all hope of liberating the Rumanians of Bukovina and Transylvania.

In Bucharest the people were almost unanimously in sympathy with the Allies, with France and Italy, Latin sister states. But the court was Germanic, the King a Hohenzollern, and German finance had long ago become predominant at the Rumanian capital and by its influence controlled many politicians, including the premier, Bratiano. Jonescu, playing the part of Venizelos in Greece, struggled to enlist his fellow-countrymen. But the Allies at Bucharest were eager that Bulgaria should be placated, in the opening days, and suggested Rumanian retrocessions. Rumania, like Greece, feared and hated Bulgaria because the Rumanians, like the Greeks, realized the immensity of Ferdinand's ambitions and the completeness of his devotion to the Austro-Germans. Much harm was done in Bucharest, as in Athens, by the effort to win concessions for a Bulgaria already gone over to the enemy, from nations that were still free to choose. The Rumanian riddle remains insoluble. Ostensibly Rumania has forced the German hand by refusing to permit the passage of German ammunition and troops through her territory, but she has also declined so far to permit Russian troops to go to the aid of the Serbians. Her neutrality on the whole seems to have leaned toward the Allies and against the Austro-Germans, as shown by various bitter comments in Berlin newspapers, but Rumanian aid remains an Allied dream rather than expectation, and Rumanian neutrality the best possible eventuality.

Such, briefly, is the story of Balkan diplomatic campaigns in recent months which have led to a great Allied defeat. Germany won because she had Bulgaria in her hands to start with. The Allies lost because they never could recognize that Bulgaria was beyond their reach and wasted precious months in bargaining with Ferdinand, weakening their prestige in Bucharest and Athens. They lost, too, because their Dardanelles campaign was an absolute failure, destructive of prestige and military reputation.

Aside from Bulgaria all the advantage lay with the Allies. Both in Greece and Rumania the whole weight of popular sympathy was with them. In Greece the greatest statesman of the nation was in power and ready to aid them. In Rumania a conspicu-

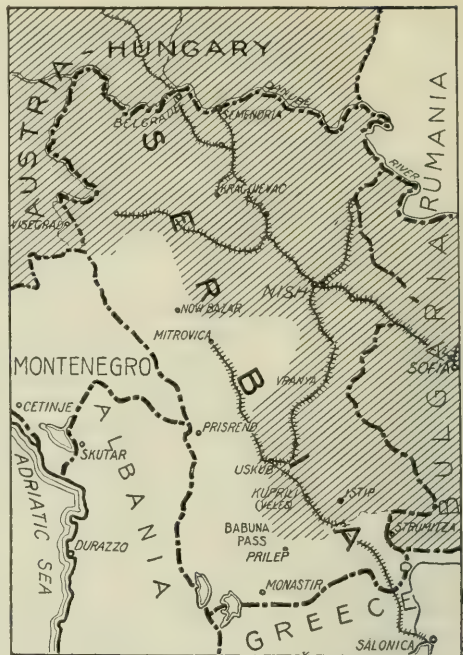
ous leader, Jonescu, worked for an alliance day and night. Russian disaster played its part. The failure in the West, the tremendous efforts of the German agents, the lavish use of money, all contributed to the end. But the real explanation must be sought and found in the willingness of the Allies to listen to Ferdinand, the Coburg Czar, who showed himself the match and the superior of all the Allied diplomatists. He tricked them and he deceived them. If he loses, his throne will be the price.

Even in Bulgaria the Allies possessed many friends. Russia was the hereditary friend. The statue of the Czar-Liberator still stands in Sofia, but Russia had failed to save Bulgaria in the Second Balkan war and had prevented the Bulgarian entrance into Constantinople in the First. At the least Ferdinand so believes, and Germany had now whispered the promise that if the Germanic powers won, the Turk would leave Constantinople for Cairo and the Coburg would reign in the Byzantine Empire. Perhaps Ferdinand in his turn was tricked by this promise, perhaps he plans to change sides again, when he has won his Macedonian price, but out of the Balkan diplomatic embroglio he emerges the dominant figure. His only rival is the Queen of Greece, the sister of the Kaiser, whose will has been supreme in Athens in a great crisis in the history of Hellenism and has been exerted not for Hellenism but for Teutonism. A victorious Germany could hardly fail to heed her claims for Greece.

VI. THE SERBIAN CAMPAIGN

Turning now to the actual operations in the Balkans, it is necessary first to fix in mind the main geographical features of the campaign, which has two separate phases, one supplied by the German advance in the north, the other by the Allied advance in the south. For the first phase the main geographical details are simple.

Roughly speaking the first Serbian field of operations may be represented by the figure of four city blocks cut by a north-and-south avenue, and an east-and-west street. The north-and-south avenue is the valley of the Morava leading from the Danube south toward Salonica and the Egean. Something less than a third of the distance between these two points, this north-and-south avenue is crossed by the east-and-west street, leading along the valley of the western branch of the Morava, from the Bosnian frontier to the



THE INVASION OF SERBIA

(The Austro-German armies advanced southward, and the Bulgarian armies moved westward. The shaded portion of the map shows the territory occupied by the invading troops on November 20)

vicinity of Nish, and then continuing along the valley of the Bulgarian Morava to the Bulgarian frontier east of Pirot and north-west of Sofia.

The Austro-German operation was undertaken to open that portion of the avenue between the Danube and Nish and that portion of the street between Nish and Bulgaria. This is the route followed by the Orient Railway, leading from Austria to Constantinople, the railroad by which Germany means to munition her Turkish ally and send the officers and equipment needed to enable a Turkish army to begin operations against Egypt.

The German plan was this: South along the broad Morava valley from Belgrade and Semendria the main army under Mackensen was sent. East along the Serbian Morava, following the route we have called a street, an Austrian army was sent, moving at right angles to Mackensen and designed to join hands with him. West along the other end of this street from Bulgaria came a Bulgar army aiming at Nish. Finally below Nish the southern half of the avenue was occupied by a second Bulgar army coming over the mountains and thus closing the Serbian line of retreat down the avenue and similarly cut-

ting off any Allied advance to Serbian aid up this route.

The Serbs, taking their stand south of the Danube, were faced with Mackensen's attack coming due south on their front. Their left and rear were exposed to Bulgar attacks coming from Sofia, their right and rear were also menaced by the Austrian army coming east from Bosnia. Think of the whole Teutonic operation as resembling the effort to catch a foe in a net, one end carried by the Austrians, the middle carried by the Germans, and the other end by the Bulgars, and the operation is fairly simple to see.

The double Serbian purpose was to hold back the center as long as possible, escape the ends of the net, and make good an escape into the mountains of Montenegro, if they were unable to hold their ground or if no help came from the Allies. The single line of retreat that remained open was by the Ibar valley, leading from the Serbian Morava valley, the street, in our figure, halfway between Nish and the Bosnian line. By this valley and by parallel passes there was a route through the old Sanjak of Novi-Bazar.

Up to the moment when this is written the Serbs have succeeded in evading the net, but the Bulgars, Austrians, and Germans have joined hands. The Orient Railway line is open. The first purpose of the Germans is achieved. Recall the Belgian campaign and it will be seen that precisely as the Germans there undertook to open a road through Belgium to France, they have been undertaking in Serbia to open a road to Bulgaria and thence to Constantinople. As in Belgium they have succeeded in opening the road, but the Serbians have so far eluded them, as did the Belgians. What remains now to be settled is whether the Serbians, like the Belgians, will escape and join their allies, having lost most of their country, or whether they will be gathered in the net.

Before turning to the second phase, it is necessary to record the fact that Serbian resistance has again supplied one of the most splendid pages in the history of the Great War. A struggle to extermination has been fought. Not alone men, but women and children, have shared in the contest. A struggle of the old-fashioned sort has been waged everywhere save in the broad valleys, where German heavy artillery overpowered the defenders. The cost to the Germans in lives has been tremendous. Serbia has been fighting a national Thermopylæ,—such a fight as she fought and lost against the Turk

five centuries and a half ago, at Kossovo, hard by the present fighting front.

VII. THE ALLIED ADVANCE

Another figure serves to illustrate the second phase in the Serbian campaign supplied by the Allies. On the map Serbia suggests in appearance the outline of an hour-glass. A little more than two-thirds of the distance between the Hungarian and Greek frontiers the country contracts to a width of less than a hundred miles. Actually the whole country is narrowed to a single gap between the eastern and western mountains. At this gap center all the roads coming from the south and the north. Here, too, is Uskub, the capital of the ancient Serbian Empire.

If Uskub were in hostile hands it would be impossible for the northern half of the country to communicate with the southern, for the only roads all converge at this point. Two of these roads from the north and three from the south are of importance. The first northern route is the extension of our avenue, of the previous chapter, the corridor along the Morava, which opens south into the Vardar. Down this comes the Salonica branch of the Orient railroad. The second comes southeast from the Bosnian boundary and is followed for most of its distance by a branch railroad, which, thirty miles above Uskub, enters the Kachanik defile. If the Serbs could hold Uskub, then the main Serbian army retreating could get south and join the Allies. They could go south either by the Vardar Valley along the railroad, or over the Babuna Pass line, which leaves the Vardar Valley at Veles, thus reaching Monastir, or they could reach Monastir by a third road, which goes north almost to Kachanik and then south through Tetovo to Monastir.

To prevent such a retreat the Bulgars early occupied Uskub and pushed up into the Kachanik pass, where they were halted, and attempted to reach Monastir both by the Veles and Tetovo roads. On the former they were halted about Tetovo, in the latter at Babuna, north of Prilip. But by occupying the city of Uskub and the Vardar Valley from Veles north to Kumanovo, above Uskub, they closed the roads from northern Serbia and blocked the way of the Allies. Unless this wedge was removed, there could be no junction in Serbia between the Serb and the Anglo-French forces.

The problem for the Anglo-French forces was twofold. They were constrained to

push north as soon as possible to remove the wedge at Uskub, to check the advance from Veles upon Monastir, but they had also to deal with Bulgarian attacks coming west over the mountains and striking at the Vardar Valley line from the Greek frontier to Veles. At Strumnitza, not far from the Greek line, Bulgar territory was but a dozen miles from the railroad.

Up to November 17 the Anglo-French forces had covered about half the distance to Uskub, steadily driving in the Bulgar raiders. The Serbs were still holding the heights above Veles and the French patrols were about the town, which was still in Bulgar hands. The Allied advance was thus slow but sure and Allied numbers were very steadily mounting. Within the next few days the fate of the Bulgar wedge must be decided. If the Germans can get troops south from Nish to Uskub before the French and British get up, then the Allies will fail in their effort to form a junction with the Serbs to the northeast and open a way for them to retire into lower Serbia. But if the Anglo-French forces arrive first, then the Bulgar forces, stretched out like an arm between the closing jaws of Serb and Allied troops will be removed and the Bulgarian troops to the west about Kachanik and Tetovo will themselves be cut off and destroyed.

A close-drawn race seems inevitable, with the chances about even, but, if anything, favoring the Bulgars, who have been in Uskub for two weeks and have had plenty of time to entrench. On the other hand they are inferior in artillery to the French and can only get ammunition over mountain roads. So far the Anglo-French force has been uniformly successful against the Bulgars, inflicting very heavy losses. But the real crisis of the campaign has only just been reached and the Anglo-French forces are still forty miles south of the town they must reach and hold if the Serbian retreat is to be assured. The Bulgarians are again reported in Tetovo, and their captures of Babuna Pass and Prilep are newly rumored.

One consequence of the opening phases of the campaign has been that once more the little Balkan peoples had been made the victims of the great powers. While the Germans have been crushing the Serbians, the Anglo-French force has been pushing against the Bulgars and the casualties of the soldiers of the Czar Ferdinand are reported to be enormous. Bulgaria, like Serbia, is paying the price, both in Macedonia and along the Thracian coast, where Allied fleets have

pounded into dust the buildings of Dedegatch, the Bulgars' single port on the open sea.

For those who love the parallel in war, the Balkan campaign inevitably suggests that other Peninsular War, which was the first real step in the overthrow of Napoleon. As the campaign progressed there was a striking similarity suggested in the fact that the Allies were soon anxiously bargaining with Greece about the fate of their army, if it should be driven out of Serbia. Thus they were seeking to use Salonica as a possible port of embarkation, as the British had used Corunna a century before, when Marshal Soult's army had driven Sir John Moore to the sea and slain the gallant commander.

To bring Constantine to reason, Kitchener was reported to have gone to the Near East, carrying an ultimatum which amounted to the threat to remove the Hellenic King from his throne if he refused to consent to permit Allied and Serb troops to retire through Greek territory, if necessary, and declined to renounce his reported project to intern these troops. The presence of German officers in Athens, the decision of the King to prorogue Parliament,—a decision acted upon after Venizelos had upset the Zaimis Ministry,—added to Allied anxieties. To the demands Greece is now reported to have bowed, as I close this review; but at the same time Venizelos, declaring that there is no chance for constitutional government, has advised his followers to abstain from taking part in the new election, fixed for December 19, and the last real hope of Greek participation on the Allied side seems to have vanished, and with its disappearance London and Paris, particularly the latter, display new apprehension and fresh fear of royal treachery and Hellenic betrayal.

VII. WHAT OF ITALY?

For several months now one of the most familiar questions in the range of war interrogation has been, "Has Italy done anything?" All over the world the impression has gained ground that the Italian campaign has not merely been a failure, but something of a farce.

Failure it has been, but hardly a farce. Even the failure has come for reasons that are wholly explicable. When the Great War began, the trench conflict was undreamed of, and for the first six weeks the lines swayed backward and forward as of old; only in size was the campaign different. But in mid-



AN ITALIAN GUN POSITION IN THE MOUNTAINOUS FIGHTING ZONE

September the Germans took to the trenches in Champagne, and, having taken to the trenches, they have stayed there ever since and practically on the lines they originally laid down in the Battle of the Aisne and the succeeding phases which extended to Flanders.

In the Italian campaign the war started in the trenches. Austria, long aware of the menace of Italian preparation, began early to construct trenches along her whole western frontier, from Switzerland to the Adriatic. For months the work went on. Thus when Italy at last struck, she ran her head instantly against long lines of prepared positions, such as those in France and Belgium had become. She was halted. She has made no real progress since, but in a period twice as long her British and French allies have made no progress against far less naturally strong works in France.

In the very first days of the war the Italians swarmed over the frontier north of Verona and west of Gorizia; they took Cortina; Ala, Gradisca, and a few other towns outside the trace of Austrian fortifications. Nowhere did they get twenty miles into Austrian territory; nowhere did they make any real breach in the trenches the Austrians had prepared. Like the French and the British advancing from the Marne to the Aisne, they suddenly came within range of heavy artillery, fixed behind permanent trenches, well prepared. And, like the French and the British, they were forced to take to earth.

This is the story of the Italian campaign. Along most of the front from Lago di Garda to the lower valley of the Isonzo they were operating in a region of great mountains, some of them rising to 10,000 feet. The summits, the foothills, all the roads and approaches had long been covered by Austrian defenses. There was little chance to blast a way through this barrier; there was none to force it. Slow, steady pressure, the capture

of a summit here, a trench there,—a difficult and tedious effort, not to break through, but on this front merely to dig in so firmly that if the Germans should join the Austrians in a drive into Italy, the Italian position would hold. This was and is the Italian campaign. Remember that this frontier was traced by Austrian military engineers intent on keeping for Austria every military vantage point, and the task is appreciated.

Between the Adriatic and the mountains, along the Isonzo River, there is a district of relatively level character perhaps thirty miles broad. This is the Gorizia front. Here the Italians could undertake precisely the operation the French have twice attempted in Champagne. By concentrating heavy artillery here they might hope to blast a way into Austria. In the month of November they made the greatest of their many attempts, driven by Allied urgings, to exert a pressure that would prevent the Austrians from detaching troops to help the Germans in Serbia.

But despite the repeated attacks,—and the Austrians concede that both infantry and artillery have played a desperate part,—Gorizia has not been taken, the Austrian line has held, the Italians have been checked with losses estimated by the Austrians at 150,000. Already the fury of the attack is dying out. Italy has gained trenches, as France did in Champagne, although she has taken no such bag of guns and prisoners; but the Isonzo line has held.

If Italy could get Gorizia and the Carso hills south of it she would be in possession of the key to Trieste, which could not long hold out. From Montfalcone, which the Italians hold, Trieste is but twenty miles distant, in plain sight of the Italian soldiers. But at this point Italy has only a bare foothold on the Carso plateau, behind Trieste, and across this plateau she has been unable to advance for many months. In a word, we

have here another deadlock, wholly similar to that in France, save that the country is more difficult and the Austrians, unlike the Germans, are close to their base.

The extent of front on which troops can maneuver is very restricted and the advantage of numbers, which lies heavily with the Italians, is of small value, for the relatively small force employed by the Austrians is sufficient to hold their short lines.

The Italian failure, therefore, is neither surprising nor unexpected. A success would have been a marvelous feat and there has been no major success. Italy has served the Allied cause by exerting pressure on a new front and occupying some hundreds of thousands of Austrian troops, which might otherwise have been used in Russia or Serbia; she has contributed materially to the work of attrition, but her part, so far, has probably been materially smaller than that of Serbia.

It is necessary to record a growing discontent among Italy's allies at her failure to go to the aid of Serbia or help in the Gallipoli peninsula. She has played a rather cold and selfish game. She does not care if Serbia is weakened, because Serbia will be a rival in the Adriatic, if Serbian dreams come true. She has not lent much help to get the Greeks in on the Allied side because

she recognizes in Greece a rival both in the Adriatic and in the Egean. Above all, she has not declared war upon Germany,—why, no one can understand.

If there be any sign of coldness and distrust between the enemies of Germany, it grows out of the wholly self-contained course of Italy. She has men, more men free than any other of the great powers, but she keeps them at home. There is much bitterness in London and Paris over all this. There is a lurking suspicion that Italy may yet desert her friends as she deserted her allies of the ante-bellum days, if she gets a proper price. But there is small reason to attach importance to this because neither Germany nor Austria can afford to give Italy all she desires,—or enough to satisfy her.

I have not attempted to analyze the military operations of the Italians in detail, because they show little of interest, despite some spectacular fighting in the mountains. All reports agree that in the past month the Italians have made heroic attacks along the Isonzo, the greatest effort in their war so far, but for the ordinary observer the real Italian progress can only be apparent when Gorizia has fallen and the Italian cannon are playing upon the forts of Trent, and that time is still, it would seem, far off.



Medem Photo Service

HOW THE ITALIANS TRANSPORT THEIR WOUNDED THROUGH THE MOUNTAINS

OUR MINISTER TO BELGIUM

THE United States Minister to Belgium, the Hon. Brand Whitlock, had held his commission less than eight months when the government to which he was accredited was driven from its capital by the German invader. Whitlock remained in Brussels and to his wise counsel is ascribed the saving of the city from the fate of Louvain, for he it was who persuaded the Belgians not to attempt resistance, which would surely have led only to overwhelming ruin.

An envoy to a ghost among governments,—for a disembodied national spirit Belgium speedily became in 1914,—might well have thought his usefulness outlived; but Whitlock, with his combination of American practicality and lofty humanitarianism, looked upon his mission as only just begun. His official status might take wings; but Whitlock never was a man to care much about the forms and trappings of office anyway. Whether he should remain envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to a phantom government mattered little to him. What did matter was that the suffering and anguish of a whole people gave him, as representative of the great republic overseas, an opportunity to be a “minister” in a very vital sense,—to serve humanity. “Starving people can’t eat Hague conventions,” he said, when famine threatened the land, and that one sentence summed up his direct, Middle Western method of frontal attack on a big human problem. Food must be had for the hungry.

It was because Whitlock at that crucial time sensed the full meaning of his job and rose to the demands of the hour that he is to-day a popular hero in Belgium, second only to the stalwart young King, while the Stars and Stripes are honored in thousands of humble Belgian homes as no foreign flag was ever before honored in Europe.

Many a diplomat serves a whole lifetime in official routine without doing one-tenth as much for his country or for the world as it has been given Whitlock to do in the past sixteen months. His cares and responsibilities have been enormous. The Commission for Relief in Belgium, whose activities are described in this REVIEW by Mr. Bicknell, worked under Minister Whitlock’s orders and directions. Innumerable differences between Belgians and Germans came to him



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

BRAND WHITLOCK, AMERICAN MINISTER TO BELGIUM

for decision. In the early stages of the German occupation the lives of many Germans were saved by his intervention. He was also called on continually for assistance to Americans in the country who found it difficult to get away. Altogether, the demands on Mr. Whitlock’s strength were too great; and overwork led to a breakdown of health. A leave of absence was granted for recuperation and he is now in this country for a brief visit.

No one who had followed Whitlock’s career was at all surprised by his decision to remain in Brussels in the city’s hour of trial, when it would have been easy to find an excuse for abandoning his post. The son of a clergyman, of German ancestry, Whitlock had grown up in the Middle West, had been a newspaper reporter in Chicago, a writer of stories, a lawyer, and for four terms Mayor of Toledo, elected and thrice reelected as the successor and disciple of “Golden Rule” Jones, with whose humanitarian principles Whitlock has always been in complete accord.



MR. ERNEST P. BICKNELL

(National Director of the American National Red Cross; member of the Rockefeller Commission for the Relief of Destitute in Europe, etc.)

A RED CROSS LEADER

MR. BICKNELL'S article, which begins on the opposite page, is deserving of particular attention as the most complete account of the relief work in Belgium, from an authoritative source, that has appeared in any magazine. Mr. Bicknell went to Belgium as National Director of the American Red Cross, and in cooperation with the Rockefeller Foundation was responsible for the distribution of food and clothing sent from the United States. This rapidly assumed the proportions of a colossal undertaking, requiring a large staff of workers and a perfected organization. Something of the magnitude of the enterprise is suggested in the article. A tour of Serbia was necessary for a similar purpose.

This was not Mr. Bicknell's first experience in supervising relief work. After the San Francisco fire in 1906 and the Sicilian earthquake of 1909, he represented the Red

Cross in the measures that were taken for relieving distress, and he has made a special study of relief methods for many years.

A graduate of Indiana University, Mr. Bicknell was for some years engaged in newspaper work at Indianapolis. He then served for five years as secretary of the Indiana Board of State Charities and for ten years as general superintendent of the Chicago Bureau of Charities. Since 1908 he has been National Director of the Red Cross.

At the London Congress of the International Red Cross, in 1907, Mr. Bicknell represented the United States. In the following year he was president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. He is a director of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis and a member of the executive board of the Boy Scouts of America.



Photo by W. C. Edgar, of Minneapolis

A NEW USE FOR THE BRUSSELS CHURCHES—STORING FOOD

HELPING THE BELGIANS

BY ERNEST P. BICKNELL

AT the outbreak of the war the executive committee of the American Red Cross decided to concentrate the work of that organization upon the medical and surgical care of sick and wounded soldiers. This decision was in keeping with historical precedent, although many officers and members of the society greatly regretted the fact that it prevented the Red Cross from participating actively in the relief of non-combatants. Large opportunity was found, however, for helping the sick and wounded in the several belligerent countries, through the personal services of near three hundred surgeons, nurses, and sanitarians and the provision, during the first year of the war, of over 3,500,000 pounds of hospital and medical supplies, numerous ambulances, etc.

On the other hand the Rockefeller Foundation turned its attention to the needs of non-combatant populations in regions actually over-run by military operations. For the effective execution of its purposes the Foundation created a War Relief Commission which was sent to Europe to investigate conditions of life in the zones of military activity and to carry out such relief measures as were found necessary. As national director of the American Red Cross and di-

rector of the War Relief Commission of the Rockefeller Foundation, the writer spent most of the time between the middle of August, 1914, and the middle of July, 1915, in a study, at first hand, of conditions in the countries at war. The month of December, 1914, was spent in Belgium, during which period rather extensive tours of inspection were made and much of the country visited. Later in the winter and again in the spring of 1915 visits of shorter duration were also made to Belgium.

On the last of these visits I entered Belgium from Germany, traveling by way of the city of Verviers with its environment of tumbled hills, across the River Meuse at Liège; and through the fertile plain which lies between Liège and Brussels. From Brussels our way led northward through Malines and Antwerp to the Holland boundary. Everywhere the fields were beautiful with the soft verdure of March. Farmers and gardeners were busy. Scarcely an available rod of land was uncultivated. Belgium, in fact, appeared normal and, as always, one of the garden spots of the world. One might have said that the country seemed prosperous and happy, with promise of a bountiful harvest.

The first sign of the destruction of war was seen at Louvain, where the buildings all about the railway station stood in blackened ruins. Between Louvain and Brussels, here and there, a burned house was visible. Brussels, beautiful as ever, was untouched by the destructive hand of war. The small towns between Brussels and Antwerp had suffered much, while the heart of Malines, with the battered walls of the splendid cathedral towering high in the midst of the wreckage, was a scene of pathetic desolation. Northward from Antwerp to the Holland line were no visible signs of war.

DESTRUCTION EXAGGERATED

A traveler, impressed by the story of Belgium's woes, might easily find himself in a condition of bewildered surprise at the conclusion of such a journey, and inclined to feel that the world had been grossly deceived in regard to the extent of the disaster which had befallen the country. So far as actual destruction of tangible, visible property is concerned,—of houses and outbuildings,—it is probable that the people of the United States have received exaggerated impressions of what happened in Belgium.

In the larger cities the destruction was in no instance more than a small proportion of the total number of buildings. In Antwerp, with a population of over one third of a million, a few scattered structures were destroyed by shell fire. Liège, with almost a quarter-million people, lost no more buildings than might have been destroyed by a somewhat unusually disastrous fire in normal times. Neither Brussels, with its 600,000 people, nor any of its suburbs suffered any losses of this character. Malines, with 60,000 people, lost several hundred buildings, chiefly business blocks, while Louvain, the heaviest sufferer, perhaps, among the important cities, lost 1100 buildings, principally residences of the better class.

As Louvain had a population of approximately 43,000, it is probable that the total number of buildings in the city was about 11,000 and, therefore, that about one-tenth of the city was burned. The important cities of Namur, Charleroi, Mons, Tervuerne, Ghent, and Bruges lost heavily, but in no case more than a relatively small fraction of their total property in buildings. Especial care was usually exercised by the invading army not to destroy manufacturing establishments.

In many smaller towns the destruction, while not greater in the aggregate, was rela-

tively much greater than in the cities. The little town of Vise, for example, with a population of possibly 4000, was completely destroyed. Dinant, with probably 5000, was almost entirely destroyed. Perhaps one-third of the houses of Aerschot, with 8000 population, were burned, while that ratio of destruction was exceeded in Tremoloo, with 2000 people. Aggregates of losses loom large, and convey an impression which is not fully sustained by a consideration of their total in relation to the total of buildings not destroyed.

This point may be illustrated by the example of the Province of Brabant, in which are situated the cities of Brussels, Louvain, Aerschot, and numerous smaller cities and towns. The province, before the war, contained a total population of 1,454,363. The number of buildings necessary to house the population and business of the province may be roughly estimated at 290,000. A few months after the German conquest, the provincial government of Brabant completed an investigation of certain classes of losses inflicted by the invading army. As this investigation was made by Belgian agents under the direction of Belgian authorities, it may be taken for granted that its findings did not understate the facts. The report of the inquiry as made public showed that 5842 houses had been totally destroyed in the province, and that 16,000 houses had been "damaged and pillaged." Of the houses "damaged and pillaged" it is not shown how many were seriously damaged.

My own personal inspection of houses "damaged and pillaged," while actually embracing only a few hundred instances, included observations in many different communities and may, perhaps, be regarded as affording a fairly reliable index to the condition indicated by the term quoted. "Damaged and pillaged," then, so far as my own observation extended, usually meant a house which had not been damaged by fire, but which had been injured by the haste or the wanton conduct of the pillagers.

It was common to find windows and doors shattered, mirrors smashed, lighting fixtures broken and torn from walls and ceilings, furniture broken to pieces, dishes and glassware in heaps of fragments, and safes, such as are ordinarily used for the protection of money or other valuables, broken open and empty. In stores and shops the stocks had usually been pulled down, and such as were not carried away were frequently left in heaps on the floor, containers broken open



ISSUING FOOD TICKETS IN BRUSSELS

and contents scattered, bolts of cloth unwound and trampled on by dirty boots, etc. While the losses caused by "damage and pillage" were great, they seldom involved very serious damage to the houses and, in fact, such houses were, as a rule, reoccupied by their tenants soon after the restoration of orderly government.

INDUSTRY AND TRADE PARALYZED

Great as were the losses from burning and pillage, and from destruction caused by actual fighting, the chief losses in Belgium are the result of the almost complete industrial and commercial paralysis which has followed the occupation of the country by the conquerors, and the levy of tribute thereafter exacted. Belgium normally is not agriculturally self-supporting. She is one of the richest countries, per capita, in the world, but her wealth lies in her manufactures, her mines, and her commerce. Only 25 per cent. of her people are classed as agricultural, and she produces less than half the cereals which she consumes.

With the German invasion, all industries, with a few minor exceptions, came to a standstill. Raw materials could no longer be imported and manufactured; products could not be exported. All railroads discontinued operation, except as required by the Germans for the transport of soldiers and military supplies. Citizens of Belgium were forbidden to leave their own communities, except upon special passes which were

issued in rare instances by the German military authorities and permitted only short trips, usually limited to a few hours' duration. Agricultural stocks, cattle, horses and other farm animals, and the raw materials held by the factories were generally seized by the army of occupation. The postal service and telegraph and telephone systems were discontinued. The condition was somewhat analogous to that of a vigorous man, struck down by paralysis and, although in full possession of all his faculties, unable to move hand or foot.

THREATENED WITH, STARVATION

Of Belgium's 7,500,000 people, probably 1,000,000 fled into Holland, France and England as the invading armies advanced. After the armies had passed across into France and to the Western edge of Flanders many of the refugees returned. It has been estimated by well-informed Belgians that the present population of the country is approximately 7,000,000. As a result of the stoppage of commerce and industry, and because the small stocks of food supplies in the country were in large part seized by the Germans, Belgium found herself instantly plunged into a condition of destitution, with actual, bald starvation threatening her people.

It should be added that this condition was intensified by the refusal of Belgians to engage in any employment or activity which could possibly be helpful to the conquerors. German military authorities and the German

civil government, which was set up in Brussels, endeavored in vain to persuade and compel the Belgians to reestablish certain industries, to man the railroads, to return to the railway repair shops, to reopen the mines, but this the Belgians steadfastly refused to do. In their stand the people were supported by the Belgian Government, from its headquarters in France.

BELGIUM'S OWN RELIEF ORGANIZATION

As quickly as conditions permitted, leading men of Belgium organized a relief agency which took the name "*Comité Nationale de Secours et d'Alimentation*," but was commonly referred to as the "Belgian National Relief Committee." M. Solvay, one of the great manufacturers and philanthropists of Belgium, was chosen president of this committee, while the most forceful and dominant personality in the group was M. Emil Francqui, director of the *Société General*, the greatest banking institution in the kingdom. The committee, in fact, may be said to be representative of all political parties as well as of business and finance.

Under the direction of the National Relief Committee, a subsidiary committee was formed in each of the nine provinces, while under each provincial committee are local committees representing all the communes in the province. The larger communal committees districted their territory, with a subcommittee in each district. The organization is extensive but simple, with the line of responsibility and accountability running unbroken from the smallest district committee

straight up to the National Committee, with all power lodged in the latter. In this connection it is to be noted that Belgium has one of the most highly organized governmental systems in the world, with a great measure of autonomy in its communal groups. The people, therefore, were not in the least puzzled by the relief organization, but, on the contrary, each commune took up its part of the relief administration without friction or delay.

Immediate measures were adopted for collecting funds and getting possession of available food supplies. From the first, however, it was obvious that the task far exceeded the resources of the National Committee and its subsidiaries. Also the regulations of the German civil and military authorities prevented that communication among the various parts of the organization, that supervision and direction of the work, and that movement and distribution of relief supplies, essential to the execution of the program. It was obvious that outside help must be enlisted; and Germany, which evinced an active interest in the project, agreed that the help of neutral countries might be sought, on condition that the American Ambassador in London should become responsible for the strict neutrality of all relief measures and of all agents and representatives of any organization which might be created to work in Belgium. A special committee, of which Mr. Francqui was chairman, was authorized to go to London to confer with the American Ambassador and with the English Government, whose blockade would have to be modified to permit the importation of relief supplies into Belgium.

THE AMERICAN COMMISSION

During the early days of the war an American committee in London had given excellent service in helping American citizens escape from the plight into which the outbreak of hostilities had plunged them. This committee now became the nucleus of a new and greater organization which assumed the title of "Commission for Relief in Belgium."



Photo by W. C. Edgar, of Minneapolis

PREPARING THE CITY'S SOUP

In order to give the commission an international character, diplomatic representatives of several neutral countries were added to its membership, including American and Spanish diplomatic representatives in Holland, Belgium, and Germany. From the first, however, the direction of the work of the commission was wholly in American hands. Mr. Herbert C. Hoover, an American engineer from California, residing in London, who had been chairman of the executive committee of the original committee created to help Americans, was appointed chairman of the Commission for Relief in Belgium. Mr. Hoover has devoted his entire time and his unusual organizing and directing ability to the commission without financial remuneration. The same is true of other members of the commission.

METHOD OF DELIVERING SUPPLIES

It is unnecessary here to describe in detail the patient and skilful manner in which the full scheme of operation was gradually hammered into a balanced, cohesive and smoothly running organization. The British Government consented to allow relief supplies to go into Belgium when carried on ships which contained no other cargo, and which flew the special flag of the Commission. The operative arrangement between the Commission and the Belgian National Committee was that the Commission would collect supplies by gift or purchase in any part of the world, would transport them under its flag to Rotterdam in Holland, and would there transfer the cargoes to canal boats or railway cars which would be sent into Belgium.

A sub-office of the Commission in Rotterdam was to have charge of the receipt of cargoes, their transfer to boats and cars and their shipment to destination. Another sub-office in Brussels was to supervise the receipt and distribution of the supplies in Belgium. The Brussels office was extremely important, because the British Government and the contributors of money and supplies relied upon its vigilance to safeguard the supplies from



Photo by W. C. Edgar, of Minneapolis

GIVING OUT THE DAY'S RATIONS

seizure by the German authorities or from waste or damage through incompetent or dishonest management, and because the German authorities, on the other hand, relied upon it to see that the cargoes contained no improper or forbidden goods and that they were not used to help the Belgian army or to support any unfriendly movement against the Germans. On its part, the Belgian National Committee was to have charge and direction of the actual distribution of supplies, the allotments to the several provincial and communal committees, the fixing of prices, the sale of foodstuffs, and the accounting for proceeds.

PRINCIPAL COST BORNE BY BELGIUM

It is doubtful whether the world understands that Belgium, through her government and her people, has borne the chief financial burden of the work of relief. A fund of \$3,000,000 was provided by a group of Belgian bankers and given to the Commission for Relief in Belgium, to be expended solely for the chartering of ships in which to bring wheat or flour from the United States and other countries. The Belgian Government has regularly appropriated \$5,000,000 each month to be expended by the Commission in the purchase of grain, flour and other foods. This contribution is not an outright gift to the Commission, although in effect it accomplishes the purpose of a gift. The government of Belgium, ever since the war began, has continued to pay the salaries and wages of a very large number of government employees. Some of these employees have con-

tinued to perform the duties for which they are paid, such as burgomasters and other city and communal officials, school-teachers, etc., while some are idle because of the German occupation of the country. The money for the payment of these employees is not delivered directly to them by the government; in fact, the government has no direct channel through which it could make payment. It is, therefore, paid over to the Commission for Relief in Belgium, which buys relief supplies with it. The supplies are sent into Belgium where they are distributed; not given away, but sold. Proceeds of the sale are paid to the communes, and the communal officers then pay the salaries and wages of the government employees. The entire transaction is somewhat like the operation of a water-wheel. The water drives the wheel in passing, but is not reduced in quantity by the service which it gives.

TWO-THIRDS OF THE PEOPLE PAY FOR BREAD

While the entire population of Belgium, approximating 7,000,000 persons, obtains its bread solely from the supplies imported by the Commission for Relief in Belgium, only about one-third of the distribution is gratuitous. About 4,500,000 persons pay for the bread which they receive, while about 2,500,000 are unable to pay. Approximately 80,000 tons of wheat or flour are required each month to supply the entire country. At the beginning of the work, last fall, the cost of wheat purchased in the United States and delivered in Belgium was approximately \$60 per ton. Later the price of wheat rapidly increased, while the charges for transportation by ship through the dangerous waters of

the English Channel, and the cost of insurance, doubled and trebled.

By the middle of the winter of 1914-15, the cost to the Commission, of wheat delivered in Belgium, had risen almost to \$100 per ton. Thus, the monthly expenditure climbed rapidly from about \$5,000,000 to about \$8,000,000; then, toward the summer of 1915, it dropped back again as the price of wheat declined. It will be seen that the sale of bread in Belgium has not been sufficient to meet the cost of the entire work. The value of the bread given away to 2,500,000 persons is, roughly, the measure of the actual gift of food required from the United States and other countries. This has varied with the changing prices and has ranged from approximately \$1,800,000 to \$2,500,000 per month. It will be understood that this amount has not all been given in cash. Much the greater part of it, in fact, has been given in the form of wheat or flour, collected by special State or community efforts in the United States. With these efforts the public is familiar, for never has so vast and universal a helpful movement been witnessed in this country as that brought into existence by the tide of sympathy for Belgium.

THE DISTRIBUTING MACHINERY AT WORK

A concrete illustration of the relief work as actually carried on may give coherence to this description, and will explain certain operations which have not yet been mentioned in this article.

When the Commission for Relief in Belgium was formed, the Rockefeller Foundation, of New York, decided to contribute a cargo of grain. It chartered the steamer

Massapequa and quickly loaded it with approximately 4000 tons of wheat. In due time the *Massapequa* reached the English Channel where she unfurled the special flag necessary to identify her as a relief ship entitled to pass unmolested through the waters of the war area. This flag was a great white square bearing in conspicuous characters the words "Commission for Relief in Belgium." Streamers also decorated the rails along both sides of the hull. Her character being thus established, she was not molested by either English or



A GROUP OF AMERICAN RHODES SCHOLARS WHO ASSISTED IN THE RELIEF WORK



A DINING HALL FOR THE CHILDREN

German war vessels, but safely arrived at Rotterdam, although her captain passed many anxious hours because of floating mines. In Rotterdam the *Massapequa* was placed in the hands of the representatives of the Commission, who had been notified by wireless of her coming and had a force of men ready to discharge her cargo. A fleet of canal barges was in waiting, and by means of huge cranes the wheat was swiftly transferred to the smaller craft. Dutch customs officers were on hand to see that no forbidden goods were included.

When the transfer was completed, the barges, each flying the Commission's flag, set out by inland waterways toward Brussels. German authorities in Belgium gave the boats free passage and expedited their movements. When the wheat reached Brussels it was sent to a mill at Vilvorde, a suburb, where it was ground into a light brown flour. Only 10 per cent. of the bulk of the grain was extracted in the form of bran, whereas in the fine white flour, commonly used in the United States, from 20 to 30 per cent. of the bulk of the wheat is extracted. The flour was delivered to the National Belgian Relief Committee, and by it loaded into many barges and sent in all directions through Belgium's remarkable canal system to different sections of the country.

One of these barges, we will say, went to Hasselt. At Hasselt the flour was placed in a warehouse in charge of an agent of the Commission for Relief in Belgium and by

him was issued, on requisitions of the Communal Committees of the National Belgian Relief Committee in that vicinity. The committee of each commune is composed, in part, of the officers of the commune, and the official machinery of the commune is used in the proper distribution of the relief supplies. Following the travels of the *Massapequa* cargo, we find that each commune which drew its supply of flour from the warehouse at Hasselt, delivered the flour to one or more bakers who baked it into loaves of bread of a certain uniform weight, as determined by the National Committee.

Each baker was given a list of the persons to whom he was authorized to deliver bread and the amount to which each family was entitled and was required to account to the Communal Committee for all the flour entrusted to him. The Communal Committee investigated conditions among the people of the commune and issued to them tickets, which entitled them to go to a designated baker and obtain each day the amount of bread indicated on the face of the tickets. To some families the committee sold tickets, to some tickets were given, according to the financial resources of each as shown by the committee's investigation.

From this description of the method of relief administration, certain details of accounting for funds, received and expended, have been omitted for the sake of simplicity, but the plan of distribution in its essentials, in every part of Belgium, is substantially that

followed in disposing of the cargo of the *Massapequa*.

In many communes food stations, commonly known as "soup kitchens" are maintained. At these the poor receive rations of a thick, nutritious soup at a certain hour each day. Committees which maintain "soup kitchens" usually make daily distribution of bread to the destitute from the kitchens, while only those who can pay obtain bread from the bakers. In Brussels many soup kitchens are maintained, and the manner in which they are organized and managed, with a great central establishment in which all the soup is made under the direction of a famous chef, and is delivered steaming hot to the distributing places by swiftly driven wagons, is an excellent illustration of Belgian ability

balance their conduct and their expressions in such a manner as to maintain the respect and good-will of both conquered and conqueror.

CLOTHING FROM AMERICA

In connection with the collection of money and food supplies in the United States and Canada, a large quantity of clothing was contributed and sent to Rotterdam with the cargoes of grain and flour. For the purpose of making a proper distribution of this contribution a special organization was created. As the clothing arrived in Rotterdam it was transferred to warehouses which were established and maintained by the Rockefeller Foundation War Relief Commission. Here it was unpacked, sorted, classified, repacked in convenient form for distribution and forwarded, chiefly to the Belgian National Committee in Brussels, though sufficient was retained for distribution among Belgian refugees in Holland.

The Belgian National Committee established a warehouse for clothing in Brussels and gave employment at small wages to hundreds of women in making over, repairing and otherwise adapting the worn clothing from Amer-



A BAKERY STORE ROOM

ica, to the customs and needs of Belgian women and children. An idea of the volume of this inflow of clothing from America may be gained from the statement that in the five months of January to May, inclusive, 23,169 cases were packed and contents indexed in the warehouses at Rotterdam. After all useless material had been excluded, there were forwarded for distribution among Belgians in Belgium and Holland 2,019,763 articles of clothing, including garments for men, women, and children.

Supervision of the distribution in Belgium was required by both German and British governments to be by Americans. For a time considerable difficulty was experienced in finding active, intelligent young Americans for this service, until the idea came to Mr. Hoover to draw upon the American Rhodes Scholars in English universities. Many of the students received the suggestion with enthusiasm; and, with the permission of the university authorities, about thirty went to Belgium, where most of them acquitted themselves with credit. The work requires not alone vigilance and accuracy, but judgment and tact as well, for the Americans must

balance their conduct and their expressions in such a manner as to maintain the respect and good-will of both conquered and conqueror.

THE EVIL OF IDLENESS

As a direct result of the paralysis of normal industry and the provision of food and clothing for the Belgian people without effort or obligation on their part, a gigantic problem of idleness arose. It is a truism that idleness makes for physical and moral decay, and it is scarcely to be expected that the prolonged idleness of the majority of the entire population of Belgium can fail to affect injuriously many of the people of that country.

In numerous communities little had been done toward clearing away the ruins of the burned houses six months after their destruction, although the people were on the ground and engaged in nothing more absorbing than drawing their supplies of food from the relief committees. In those communities in which no destruction of buildings had occurred, much employment might have been found in mending roads, repairing canal dikes, clearing the canals of wreckage of broken bridges, etc. A general fear existed that any public works which might be undertaken would prove to be of benefit to the Germans, and for that reason the idea was regarded with disfavor. Owners of houses which had been damaged hesitated to rebuild them because, as they said, the German armies to the west of them would soon be driven back across Belgium and would again destroy all that had been done to repair the results of their previous operations. This attitude of mind seemed to be shared by leading men and by the Belgian Government itself.

AN INDUSTRIAL EXPERIMENT IN HOLLAND

In the Belgian refugee camps in Holland, where there was little opportunity for labor, the effects of prolonged idleness were unmistakable. In January, 1915, the camps, equipped and maintained by the Dutch Government, contained a population of approximately 150,000 persons. These people had fled from Belgium in August and had brought no warm clothing. As winter came on they suffered severely from cold and exposure. When the "second-hand" clothing began to arrive from America their condition was greatly ameliorated, but there was an almost total lack of underwear, and the clothing from America did not include wearable underclothing except in small quantities. When the Rockefeller Foundation War Relief Commission inspected some of the camps its attention was strongly attracted to two obvious facts:

First, The refugees were suffering intensely for lack of warm underclothing, a need which local volunteer Dutch committees were unable to meet. Instances of disease due to exposure were numerous, and the mortality among infants in the camps was abnormally high, as a result of the same cause.

Second, universal idleness was undermining the energy and character of the refugees. They were becoming discontented and quarrelsome, and were disinclined to discharge the



Photo by W. C. Edgar, of Minneapolis

INSPECTING A BAKER'S LOAVES

simple duties which could be given to them, such as making beds, cleaning quarters, helping to prepare food, etc. Managers of the camps complained of the continual bickering of the women about their children, their accommodations, their discomforts.

Following this inspection of refugee camps the War Relief Commission proposed to the management of a small camp in Rotterdam that an experiment be tried in giving the women of that camp an opportunity for employment at manufacturing underclothing and stockings for the use of their own families and of their fellow refugees. A meeting of all the women in the camp was held in the big dining-hall, and when the plan was explained the response was pathetically enthusiastic. The women who said they could use sewing machines were first listed and then those who said they could not use machines, but could sew by hand or could knit.

The War Relief Commission proposed to the camp management that if a suitable room were provided the Commission would provide sewing machines, cloth and findings, woolen yarn for stockings and would employ a capable woman as directress. The offer was accepted and the following day thirty sewing

machines were installed, a supply of materials was purchased and the work began. Among the refugees in the camp a dressmaker from Antwerp was found and was employed to direct the work under the supervision of a committee of Dutch women of Rotterdam.

All concerned were astonished at the transformation which the camp experienced. The new interest and the opportunity to provide their families and others with warm underwear completely changed the spirit of the place. Discipline, which had been a difficult and thankless task, suddenly became an unimportant detail, so far as the women were concerned. The change affected the men also; for the occupation of the women removed many of the sources of friction and gossip among the male inmates of the camp.

As a stimulus to the women the War Relief Commission gave a bonus of one guilder (forty cents) a week to each woman who had worked a required number of hours. This payment was not regarded as wages, because, as was explained, the refugees were receiving free of cost their board and shelter and the garments which were manufactured, and therefore could not fairly expect to receive wages.

When this experiment had been in successful operation for some days, the members of the War Relief Commission, accompanied by Dr. Henry van Dyke, the American Minister at The Hague, called upon the Dutch Minister of Foreign Affairs and explained what had been done. As the Belgian refugees were all under the protection and guardianship of the Dutch Government, it was essential that the experiment should have the approval of the governmental authorities. The Foreign Minister was much interested and expressed the hope that the work might be expanded. A little later the Minister of the Interior, within whose jurisdiction the care of refugees lies, cordially approved the plans which were laid before him and appointed a national commission to cooperate with the Rockefeller Foundation War Relief Commission.

Under the operation of this arrangement the government provided suitable quarters in the various camps, for the accommodation of the employed groups of women. Managers of the camps everywhere welcomed the extension of the industry. Eventually the experiment was carried into thirty-five camps. More than 4000 women were given employment. The number of pieces of underwear completed and distributed was 101,000, while

the knitting women produced 54,000 pairs of stockings and socks.

At the beginning of June the War Relief commission withdrew. All the refugees had been comfortably supplied with clothing, summer made it possible for them to spend much time in the open air, and the commission believed that the Belgians should be encouraged to return to their own country, where most of their compatriots had remained and were living in approximately normal surroundings and where opportunities existed for employment in repairing the damages of war. It seemed to the commission unwise to maintain any enterprise which tended to prolong the abnormal life of the camps.

HOLLAND'S NOBLE ATTITUDE

With this position the Dutch Government was not in entire accord; and despite the fact that it was expending millions from its straining treasury in the most generous care of the refugees, it declined to take any steps toward persuading the refugees to return home. Its hospitality was not to be measured by the cost. In withdrawing from Holland, therefore, the War Relief Commission transferred the direction and maintenance of the industrial work to the government, which desired its continuance. As a last evidence of the good-will of the War Relief Commission toward the Dutch authorities, it purchased outright 500 sewing machines which it had previously used under rental, and turned them over to the government for continuing use in the camps.

An observer who had the best of opportunities to gauge the value of this experiment has written of it as follows:

Those who met in these classes felt that they were engaged in useful work. They could see the result and share in the product. They felt that they were working for their country. It was a common thing, on entering a sewing class, to hear a hundred or more girls and women singing the Belgian Lion. Few visitors could face such a roomful, with all which it represented on the one hand of exile and suffering, and on the other, of sympathy and international good will, without deep emotion. The work has fully justified itself. The most sanguine expectations have been fulfilled. The women and girls have taken up the work willingly. The sewing and knitting classes have been genuine social centers. They have counteracted the demoralizing influence of refugee life. They have promoted happiness and contentment. They have brought about relations of friendship between Dutch ladies and Belgian girls peculiarly in need of friendly guidance and help. They have been both an educational and a moral influence.

Duty and inclination require that a word be said here of the part which the Dutch



PUTTING UP PACKAGES TO BE SENT TO THE PROVINCES

people and government have taken in the care of the Belgian refugees. It is unnecessary to look to the countries at war for examples of uncomplaining courage, of sacrifice, of devotion to country, of noble spirit. The story of Holland during this period of stress and anxiety is illuminated by the pervading presence of all those qualities. Bereft of most of her commerce, her factories closed, her army mobilized at tremendous cost, her people taxed perhaps as never before, she threw open her doors to a million Belgians fleeing in fear, took them into her private homes, or provided shelter and food in great camps erected at vast expense for that sole purpose, and has borne the burden graciously, uncomplainingly, for more than a year. The load has gradually decreased as the refugees have returned to Belgium or have gone to England, but Holland to-day is probably providing all the necessities of life,—shelter, food, clothing,—for 100,000 refugees. And still she smiles and holds out her arms in welcome to all who come.

WHAT IS NEEDED THIS WINTER

A word concerning the immediate future in Belgium:

The industrial and commercial paralysis which, with the invasion, plunged the entire country into idleness, still prevails. Some

small activities have gradually come back to life and agriculture has been revived, but Belgium is primarily an industrial country and her workmen are unemployed. As this stagnation continues, the resources of the people are becoming exhausted and the number of dependents upon charity steadily increases. Almost one-third of the total population is now unable to buy its food and clothing.

With unabated courage the Commission for Relief in Belgium has gone forward with its gigantic task of benevolence. By means of the remarkable economic and financial measures which have characterized its operations, it has worked out a program for the coming winter which promises to provide the prime essentials of foodstuffs, but it is relying chiefly upon the generosity of the United States for the necessary clothing. The great supply of clothing contributed last winter is exhausted. As a means of employment, it seems wise to send materials for clothing rather than the made-up garments. The successful experiment of last winter, by which idle Belgian refugees in Holland were given wholesome employment in making clothing for themselves, has been put into operation on a much enlarged scale in Belgium. By this means the evil effects of idleness may be to some extent overcome and a large group of people given a chance for self-support.

THE BULGARIANS AND THEIR COUNTRY

BY OLIVER BAINBRIDGE

[Bulgaria, by reason of her recent entrance as a participant in the great war, has created fresh interest in the people and conditions of that country. The remarkable progress made by the Bulgarians in the last third of a century is set forth in the following article. The writer, Mr. Bainbridge, is an experienced traveler and the author of "India of To-Day," "The Heart of China," and other works. His favorable observations on Bulgaria and its people coincide with those of other eminent travelers and students of world conditions.—THE EDITOR.]

THE advanced state of democracy attained in Bulgaria proves that centuries of tyranny have not unfitted the Bulgars for self-government. All lovers of freedom are delighted with the prudence they have shown and the enormous success which has attended their efforts. A million and a quarter sterling over expenditure during the first eleven years of their independence speaks well for their financial administration. They have a single chamber, known as the *Sobranje*, the members of which are elected by universal manhood suffrage. The assent of the Czar is required for all laws passed by the *Sobranje*. Eight Ministers, who are nominated by and are responsible to the Czar, form a Council in which the executive power is vested.

THE CZAR AND THE CZARITSA

The Czar is the constitutional head of the State, the real power being in the people. The State is divided into twelve districts, at the head of which there is a Prefect who is appointed by the Czar on the recommendation of the Minister of the Interior.

The Czar Ferdinand who is highly distinguished for the penetration of his intellect, has made Bulgaria. Those who know the inside history of that country during the

last twenty-eight years will agree that he has built it up commercially, attracted money to it for railroads and industrial development, and administered its finances as ably as he administers his own private fortune.

During the conversations which I have had with his Majesty I was impressed with that

sanguine temperament, that spirit of self-reliance, that fearless determination which has enabled him to transform Bulgaria from a condition of weakness and poverty into a progressive and flourishing country.

The Czar has been ably assisted during the last seven years by the Czaritsa Eleonore, the royal Florence Nightingale, who has taught us that the first element

of true culture is utility, and that we should think more of others and less of ourselves. During the two Balkan wars she traveled incognito over the lines of transport to see the wounded accommodated, and, whenever possible, helped in the operating-room, where her gentle presence cheered and encouraged the sufferers.

Her Majesty told me, with much amusement, that some of the peasants, who are anything but paragons of cleanliness, were little pleased with her efforts to inculcate ideas of sanitation, and referred to her as "that meddling nurse up at the Palace."



CZAR FERDINAND AND THE CZARITSA ELEONORE



BULGARIANS IN THEIR "BEST CLOTHES," WITH EMBROIDERED SHEEPSKINS AND LACE PETTICOATS
(They are about to engage in their native "Belt Dance")

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

The moment Bulgaria attained her independence she instituted a system of free and compulsory education, for she knew that it was the basis of national destiny, and when we remember that the Bulgarian peasantry depend upon the help of their own families to till their farms we can form a faint idea of the sacrifices they make in order to send their children to school. There are agricultural schools to which model farms are attached at Sardovo and at Roustchouk, while at Philippopolis there is a school open to young men who wish to take up fruit growing. Priests and village schoolmasters are compelled to take a course in agriculture. Students, when they travel separately on the railways, are allowed a reduction of 50 per cent. on the price of the ordinary ticket, and when they travel in parties of ten or more, and are accompanied by one of their teachers, they are allowed a reduction of 75 per cent. The railways are State property and are under State management. If we take into account the new lines in course of construction and the others that are planned, Bulgaria has more lines of railway than Serbia, Greece, and Turkey put together.

The adolescent University of Sofia has

three faculties—History and Philology, Physics and Mathematics, and Law. It is attended by 2,000 students, of whom 300 are women, and there are 60 professors and lecturers. The 5,450 educational institutions in Bulgaria, which include some of the finest high school buildings in the world, have a staff of 13,500 teachers and are attended by 530,000 students,—315,000 boys and 215,000 girls. I was much surprised with the attention and the intelligence of the students, each one of whom seemed to be imbued with the magnificent idea that they must build their character for themselves, and the State is rendering an incomparable service by enabling them to build it upon firm foundations and with enduring materials.

There are national libraries at Sofia and Philippopolis and over one thousand reading-rooms throughout the State. In the important centres they have courses of public lectures, which are always greeted with large and enthusiastic audiences.

AN AGRICULTURAL COUNTRY

Bulgaria is preëminently an agricultural country. Out of a population of nearly five millions, about three millions are engaged in cultivating their own farms, which

rarely ever exceed six or seven acres. They have fixity of tenure, paying one-tenth of the gross produce by way of rent, which seems a most cumbersome system. The government is theoretically the owner of the land, and can resume possession in the event of the holder not being able to pay his tithe. The Agricultural Bank, which has many branches and agencies throughout Bulgaria, has met with the greatest success. It not only advances sums to farmers to buy cattle, seeds and agricultural implements, but very often does the buying for them.

The grains cultivated are wheat, maize, barley, rye, oats, rice, and millet. The principal industrial plants are tobacco, roses, and beetroot. I was particularly interested in the rose crop, for I had often heard of the famous Bulgarian *Atta* made from the red and white roses gathered in the gardens of Kazanlik, Karlovo, Klissoura, and Starazagora. It takes a ton and a half of roses to make a pound of oil, which is obtained after three distillations. It is a deep golden color, and the odor is so pungent that it produces a sense of giddiness. The oil is placed in leaden bottles and sent to the perfume emporiums in Paris and London, where it is used to form the basis of a thousand different scents. The girls who gather the roses make jam and syrup from the petals, which are very delicious, but a trifle too sweet for my Western palate.

There is not a high standard of comfort among these simple peasant farmers, whose clothing is homespun and whose footgear is made of the pelts from which the wool is taken. Even the more well-to-do are content to live in plainly furnished cottages with mud floors.

RELIGIOUS CONDITIONS

The Bulgarians have a firm idea of right and wrong. If a man is asked to do anything which is not approved by the master of his soul, he only says, "I cannot,—it would be shame." He cannot tell you why it would be shame; he knows that he would suffer, and he does not trouble himself with complex explanations. It is this mold of thought which influences the whole current of life and movement in Bulgaria. And it is because they have made God their partner they have been able to give us such lessons in courage and self-sacrifice, and show that noble toleration of religions other than their own, Mohammedans, Greeks, Jews, Roman Catholics, Armenians, and Protestants all enjoy complete religious freedom in Bulgaria.

The national faith is that of the Orthodox Bulgarian Church, which is governed by the Synod of Bishops under the Presidency of an Exarch. The late Exarch Joseph was one of the greatest men of modern Bulgaria. He guided the destinies of the Church for the last thirty years with such tact and courage that all Bulgarians were drawn to him in an attitude of respectful affection.

His Beatitude, who received me at the Palace of the Holy Synod, impressed me as a man who had accustomed himself to the thoughtful and quiet study of human nature, as well as having a wide experience in politics, which I think is amply revealed by the intellectual and material progress made by the Bulgarians in Macedonia. When I mentioned some of the charges that the Balkan States had made to me against one another, he said: "I am afraid, Mr. Bainbridge, that you will find the deviation from truthfulness has not been sufficiently guarded against."

The Exarch and bishops are chosen for life by secret ballot in which laymen are permitted to cast their vote as well as the clergy. The ecclesiastical authorities exercise complete jurisdiction over all matters pertaining to marriage and divorce.

LOVE, MARRIAGE, AND HOME LIFE

In this country, according to the canonical laws, the legal age for contracting marriage is fixed at nineteen years for boys and seventeen years for girls. The Bulgarians are generous lovers who trust as fully as they love. They realize that there must be much in another's life which they cannot know and cannot share, however closely it may be bound with their own, and they are willing and glad to accord it perfect freedom. Relying on its character and confiding in its love, they put it to no test, they seek for no fresh proofs, they demand no signs to confirm it nor evidences to verify it. They give freely of the wealth of love in their own hearts, but they never bargain or pause to consider whether they receive the full price of the love they pour out. Yet it is to them that the full measure of affection is given, "pressed down, shaken together, running over." Demanding nothing, exacting nothing, they receive abundantly; while they who are ever grasping lose all.

Bulgarian women, who present a charming picture in their white head-dresses, short embroidered kirtles and lace petticoats, do not indulge in flirtation, which is the intermedi-

ary between companionship and courtship and a mockery of both. They believe the secret chambers of the heart are too sacred for the imps of flirtation to gambol in or to be subjected to trifling.

The Bulgarians, even if they have to struggle hard, lead a life which is almost ideally happy. The great thing which gives happiness is mutual confidence, and, when we see man and wife exhibiting quiet and mutually respectful familiarity, we may be fairly certain that they are to be looked on as most fortunate in the world.

Divorce is very rare in Bulgaria, where it may be obtained on several grounds. It delights me to be able to state that parties who have been found guilty of adultery are not allowed to marry their accomplices, and if we in the West would adopt this very wise law and punish these home-wreckers a disgusting blot would be removed from the brow of our civilization.

A STRONG AND HEALTHY RACE

The pure life led by the Bulgarians accounts for them being such a strong and healthy race. Mr. G. Aird Whyte, of Edinburgh, who spent several months with a medical mission in the Balkans, in writing to me says that "physically they are in many ways superior to other nations. They have a sound constitution and lack the 'nervous system,' so that there were few cases of collapse in our hospitals. I came across only

one case of vomiting after chloroform of all the cases that passed through our operating theatre at Mustapha Pasha. Out of nearly two thousand men who passed through the hospital, with the exception of those who had emigrated and returned to fight, only two had bad teeth—a good index of the general health of a nation. Out of the same number of cases there was one suspected of a venereal disease."

SOFIA, THE CAPITAL

No city in the East has undergone such a magic transformation as Sofia. Prior to the emancipation of the Bulgars it was a small Turkish town of 20,000, with narrow, dirty streets. There was practically no trade and the people were in a hideous state of poverty. The city which has now risen up has a population of about 125,000 and is rapidly becoming one of the best in Eastern Europe. Architecturally it has far more claims to respect than is at first apparent. The streets, which are well paved and beautifully clean, are too narrow for the adequate display of the fine proportions of the Czar's palace, the National Theatre, the General Post Office, the War Office, the Bulgarian National Bank, the William Gladstone High School for Boys, the Grand Hotel de Bulgarie, the National Agricultural Bank, the Sobranje, and many other public buildings which are of fine sandstone. The ecclesiastical edifices are of remarkable beauty, especially the new cathedral.



A STREET SCENE IN MODERN SOFIA

"SPEEDING THE SILVER BULLETS"

GREAT BRITAIN'S PROBLEMS OF WAR FINANCE AND WAR ECONOMY, AND
HOW MR. MCKENNA IS MEETING THEM

BY LEWIS R. FREEMAN

"EACH one of you has silver bullets in your pockets which will help to stop the Germans."

The phrase was Lloyd George's, and it was also he who, as Chancellor of the Exchequer during the opening months of the war, fired the first tentative volleys of "silver bullets." But the sustained bombardment,—the "hurricane fire" as it is swiftly becoming,—was left to be directed by the Honorable Reginald McKenna, who succeeded to the Chancellorship when, in May last, Lloyd George was called to the head of the new Ministry of Munitions and set to speeding the bullets of steel.

The task the former Chancellor of the Exchequer left behind him was scarcely less appalling in its baffling immensity,—it had now become an economic as well as a financial problem,—than the one to which he went. And the story of the firm-handed, clear-headed way in which it has been taken up and put on the road to fulfillment is also the story of how a cabinet minister who had never attained to anything approaching popularity,—whose resignation, indeed, had not long before been clamored for by a not incon-

siderable section of the press and public,—became in an hour,—in an hour and fifteen minutes, to be exact,—one of the most acclaimed and trusted men in England.

ENGLAND'S RELUCTANCE TO TAX HERSELF

Britain's first financial measures, like her military, were calculated only to tide over the chaos which followed the outbreak of

hostilities. The war would be over by Christmas, so most members of the government appeared to think; and definite plans for defraying its cost could be taken up in the piping times of peace to follow, when men and nations had regained their proper perspective. Increased taxes were imposed on tea, tobacco, spirits, and a few other things; but the main dependence was placed upon a loan of \$1,750,000,000 raised in the early winter.

Even by spring-time the grim reality of the war, which was gripping the other belligerents by the throat, had been so little felt in England that the government was



Photograph by American Press Association, New York
THE HONORABLE REGINALD MCKENNA, BRITAIN'S
CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER

still in a temporizing mood when another budget was presented in May. Even Lloyd George, clear-sighted as he had proved himself to be in forecasting the need of munitions,

was reluctant to grasp the nettle firmly by imposing fresh taxes. There was a chance of peace by fall, it was urged at this time, and it would be wisest to tide over the interval with another loan.

Almost immediately following the presentation of his May budget, Lloyd George was transferred to the new Ministry of Munitions; and the task not only of raising the new war loan but of finally facing the long-deferred taxation problem as well, fell to Mr. McKenna, who, in spite of a rather troublous tenure of the Home Secretaryship, was deemed the best man available for the vacated portfolio. How fortunate an appointment it was probably very few even of the new Chancellor's greatest admirers realized at the time.

FLOATING THE GREATEST LOAN IN HISTORY

The work of raising the new war loan,—amounting though it did to more than \$3,000,000,000,—was a simple one compared to the fixing of the new taxes. Britons of the present generation have been loaning or investing money all their lives, the most striking evidence of which perhaps is the fact that \$20,000,000,000 worth of foreign securities are estimated to be held by the canny inhabitants of the tight little island. It was not necessary to "stage" the loan by a long interval of public preparation as has always been done in Germany, and was, to a certain degree, done in the case of the flotation of the recent Anglo-French loan in the United States.

The mere announcement that during a couple of the early weeks of July unlimited subscriptions to a loan to bear the unprecedented interest of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. would be received was sufficient. With a careless gesture the British moneyed interests,—mostly banks and insurance companies,—coolly tossed \$2,900,000,000 into the war hat and went on about their business, while the general public,—stimulated by a well-planned poster campaign,—brought the total up to and beyond even figures by buying vouchers ranging in amounts from \$1.25 to \$25. "This beats the old Consols all hollow," everyone said, and intimated that there was plenty more money to be had when further need should arise. What up to that time was the greatest loan in history was floated with less effort and excitement than those accompanying the opening of the subscription list of a wild-cat company in an Oklahoma or California oil boom. It was a remarkable financial achievement.

JOHN BULL FINALLY "TAKES HIS BIT"

But in spite of the ease with which it now seemed probable that the money to finance the war for an indefinite period could be raised, there was a growing feeling in England that the time had come to "pay." Something of the magnitude of the work ahead had at last begun to come home to the British people. Men no longer spoke of "the end of the war" as something the date for which could be definitely or even approximately fixed, but rather as an eventuation of the dim and distant future, like the millennium. A "war consciousness," and with it a commensurate "war responsibility," was developing. "We can't leave it all to be shouldered by posterity," men began saying. "We've got to take our own bit, and no time will be so favorable for taxation as the years of abnormal prosperity during and immediately following the war itself. Slap on your taxes. We're ready for them. Only distribute them fairly over all classes and we won't complain."

To allot equitably the burden of a greatly augmented taxation,—that, in a word, was the apparently simple but really incalculably complex task which was set for Mr. McKenna.

To distribute the taxes fairly was a sufficiently difficult problem in itself; to persuade a jealous and highly self-conscious working class, which was already breaking or threatening to break into incipient strikes on the most trivial pretexts, that it was a fair distribution seemed almost too much to hope for. Moreover, the striking changes which had taken place in England during the fourteen months of the war made it imperative that the new taxes should endeavor to accomplish certain economic as well as financial ends. A brief explanation of what these changes were will help to an understanding of the problem which confronted the new Chancellor of the Exchequer.

INCREASED DEMAND FOR LABOR,—HIGHER WAGES

One of the immediate effects of the war was a great improvement in the condition of the English workers of all classes. Unemployment,—the insidious cancer that had been eating deeper and deeper toward the heart of the British social system for years,—was put an end to almost in a night. There was an immense deal more work to do, and, with the recruiting of between two and three million soldiers, fewer hands to do it. The organ-grinder and the vender of useless

trinkets disappeared from the streets. Boys and women took the place of men. Girls those of boys and women. The almshouses poured out all in possession of their working faculties; men and women of leisure turned their hands to "war work," and still the supply was short.

Then wages began advancing. Unskilled workers received two and three times as much as they had been able to command before the war; artisans from three to four times as much. The consequence of this was that the greater part of the workers of England were earning more, and, in spite of the considerably increased cost of living, had more to spend, than ever in their lives before. That they should spend, and spend freely, was naturally to be expected; nor was it entirely undesirable that a certain amount of their earnings should go into circulation again in the purchase of domestic products. Unfortunately the main drift of the new spending was not for better food and more comfortable quarters, badly as these were needed in most instances, but for luxuries, and foreign luxuries at that.

IMPORTING FOREIGN LUXURIES

The chirp of the cuckoo clock began echoing in the tenements of Newcastle and Birmingham; the coster maid of Shoreditch added another six inches to her inevitable ostrich plume; the cinema theaters,—95 per cent. of whose films came from California,—were packed to suffocation, and the whine of the American-made phonograph was heard from Land's End to John o' Groat. Also, there came to be seen in startlingly increasing numbers American motor-cycles and what the ultra-patriotic Britisher is wont to call "the cheap Yankee automobile."

There was no complaint regarding the quality of these goods, but there was, and very justly, an outcry against the purchase of unnecessary foreign articles at a time when the curtailment of British manufacture for export conspired with the rapidly increasing purchases of munitions in America to create a tremendous trade balance against England. That this trouble was actual as well as apparent was evident from the trade returns covering the first year of the war, which showed that the importation of foreign luxuries was much greater than during the previous year of peace. The demand, therefore, was that the new taxes should, besides increasing the current revenue as much as possible, aim also to restrict the consumption of foreign luxuries at a time when the

American exchange was daily sagging lower and lower as a consequence of the mounting trade balance against Great Britain.

THE SEPTEMBER WAR BUDGET

With these ends in view Mr. McKenna, in the intervals of dispensing the money from the latest war loan at a rate which rose from \$15,000,000 a day in the early part of July to \$20,000,000 a day a couple of months later, figured and consulted, and figured and consulted, until the end of September, the country meanwhile bracing itself to take up the new burden as a stout-hearted pack-horse stiffens his knees against a further addition to an already heavy burden. "We've asked to be taxed," the people said; "and we're ready to put up with whatever is necessary. Only please hurry up and let us know the worst as soon as you can." The Chancellor announced that the budget would be ready to present to Parliament shortly after it assembled in the middle of September.

The scant 120 seats in the little visitors' gallery of the House of Commons were applied for many times over for the afternoon on which the budget was to be read, and as far as possible these were allotted to those most vitally interested in the measures in hand. Most of the great financial and industrial kings of Britain fidgeted on the nar-



A STAR TURN—THE CHANCELLOR OF THE EX-CHEQUER
From *Punch* (London)

row benches, and the majority of these, with budget speeches of the past in mind, had made arrangements to have tea, and dinner, and even supper served them in the House. Several had prepared to stick it out on chocolate so as not to miss even a quarter of an hour of the fateful pronouncement.

"Question Time,"—the hour in which the humble M. P. is allowed to prove his devotion to his constituents by "heckling" the mighty cabinet minister,—passed off perfunctorily, and about four o'clock a well-set-up, middle-sized man with a bald head, a clear eye and a distinctly pleasant face stood up by the long center table and began to talk. Now he spoke of shillings and pence, and even farthings; again of millions, and hundreds of millions and,—once or twice,—of thousands of millions of pounds. Now he was explanatory, now expository, now calculative; never was he oratorical. His eloquence,—for eloquence of a kind there was,—found expression in figures of estimate rather than figures of speech. For seventy-five minutes he spoke,—marshalling facts and figures and their corollaries,—and then sat down. Thus did Mr. McKenna present the epochal war budget of the fall of 1915.

TAX DISTRIBUTION THAT MET WITH APPROVAL

Former Chancellors of the Exchequer had always talked for an hour or two or three before getting down to business, and a number of distinguished bankers, not unnaturally anticipating an even longer period of "first-lies" and "second-lies" on this momentous occasion, did not arrive at the House of Commons until after Mr. McKenna had finished his speech. Those who were on hand changed from an attitude of perfunctory attention to one of active interest at the Chancellor's first words, and followed him closely to the end. Now the twitch of a "mutton chop" whisker,—the invariable insignia of the old-school British banker,—told of a jaw muscle that had been sharply flexed as the new income tax rate was read, or a pucker of perturbation appeared in a beetling brow as a manufacturer saw his swelling "war profits" cut in half at one fell swoop; but for the most part they "stood the gaff" like the game old patriots they were. Indeed, the expressions on the faces of these giants of British finance and industry after the reading of the budget reminded me very strongly of the advertising poster of a Western dentist, on which, under the grinning countenance of a pleased patient, was the legend, "It didn't



Photograph by Paul Thompson.

THE CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER

(Mr. R. McKenna with Mrs. McKenna on their way to the House of Commons the day that Mr. McKenna presented his first war budget)

hurt a bit. I'm coming back to Dr. ——— again."

The brevity of the budget speech created a scarcely less favorable impression than its lucidity. As one paper put it,—referring to former Chancellors of the Exchequer,— "What would have taken Mr. Lloyd George five or six hours to present, Mr. Asquith two or three days, and Mr. Gladstone all of a week, Mr. McKenna accomplished to perfection in an hour and a quarter." The fact that there was no suggestion whatever of an attempt to "play politics" in the budget also told strongly in its favor with the general public.

WHAT ARE THE NEW TAXES?

The nature of the new taxes may be indicated as follows: A general increase of the income tax of about 40 per cent., so that it now takes approximately 10 per cent. of all incomes of between \$600 and \$5000 a year, and from 25 to 35 per cent. on those from \$20,000 upwards. A special tax,—popularly called the "war profits" tax,—of 50 per cent. to be levied on all trades and manufactures

whose profits exceed those of 1914-15 by over \$500. Duties on tea, cocoa, tobacco, coffee, and dried fruits raised 50 per cent., and on motor spirits and patent medicines 100 per cent. A new ad valorem duty of 33 1/3 per cent. on imported automobiles, motor-cycles, cinema films, clocks, watches, and musical instruments. Considerable increases in postal, telegraphic, and telephonic rates. (Both of the latter services are state-operated in England.)

NOT PROTECTIONISM

Perhaps the most significant commentary on the fairness with which these taxes are distributed is found in the fact that the only organized attack upon the budget came from a small group of hide-bound free-traders who professed to believe that they desecrated in the new duties on autos, cinema films, and other imported luxuries the point of the entering wedge of protection. There is little doubt that Great Britain will,—must, in fact,—adopt a certain degree of protection after the war, but Mr. McKenna is absolutely above suspicion of trying to use the present emergency to hasten the day. Indeed, nothing that the Chancellor of the Exchequer has said or done can in any way be construed to indicate that he is any less sincere in his adherence to at least the principle of free trade than he was before the war.

WHY LIQUOR WAS LET OFF

The failure of the new budget to impose additional taxes on beer and spirits was a surprise only to those quite unacquainted with the conditions prevailing, for it was hardly to be expected that where Lloyd George had rushed in and failed Mr. McKenna would have the temerity to tread. Indeed, as I heard an American of twenty years' residence in London aptly put it, "The Chancellor showed commendable discretion in not butting his head against that unbreachable wall, the stones of which are the brewing and distilling interests, and the mortar of which is the insatiable thirst for liquor of both the lower and upper classes of Britons."

"The drink question," said this same keen observer, who is a banker, and neither a teetotaler nor even an especial advocate of temperance under normal conditions, "has been just about the worst handled of any of the domestic problems which have confronted England since the outbreak of the war, and that is saying a good deal. The saving, direct and indirect, from the putting through

of Lloyd George's total prohibition scheme last spring would have gone a mighty long way toward paying the cost of the war. And yet we had,—and still have,—the remarkable anomaly of a people sacrificing rivers of blood for their country, and yet being unwilling to give up the use of beverages which not only wasted money but lowered their industrial and military efficiency as well.

"McKenna was wise in steering clear of the thing at this juncture. He well knew that a very substantial majority in the House of Commons, rallying around the 'solid Irish,' would have wrecked the whole of his budget rather than to allow the entering wedge of prohibition to be driven on any further than it now goes under the Munitions Act. It will probably take another year or so of war, at twenty or thirty million dollars a day, to bring them and the country to their senses."

HOW MUCH CAN THE COUNTRY STAND?

The extent of the "taxability" of Great Britain,—the proportion of its war expenses the country can pay out of current revenue,—it is very difficult to approximate, largely because of the fact that this limit will be raised indefinitely as a complete realization of their responsibilities awakens in the British people a will to produce and save. Perhaps the most authoritative statement that has been made in this connection is that of Prof. W. R. Scott, the distinguished president of the British Association. "It is altogether probable," said Professor Scott in addressing a recent gathering of economists at Manchester, "that Great Britain could finance indefinitely a war costing not over one billion pounds a year. The governing condition to this, however, would be that the country put its back into it and worked a good deal harder than in time of peace. We could probably raise by taxation 400,000,000 pounds with the national income as it is just now. We could save, if we really set ourselves to it, an additional 400,000,000 pounds. But supposing the country worked harder and saved more, and suppose besides private public economy were exercised, then we come within sight of bridging over the gap between 800,000,000 pounds and the 1,000,000,000 wanted. Therefore, the things to strive for are increased economy, both public and private, and increased production."

The raising of such a sum would, however, represent pretty nearly Britain's maximum effort, and of the régime of public and

private economy which must prepare the way for it there is as yet only too little evidence. Nearly everyone, it is true,—except those workers alluded to whose expenditures have increased with their wages since the outbreak of the war,—is spending less than in peace times. But both public and private economies, for the most part, are more or less sporadic and misdirected, like that of the noble lady who wrote to a London paper to announce proudly that she had opened her savings campaign by striking all meats off the menu of her servants' hall. There is a good deal of legitimate complaint on the score of public extravagance. One sees no end of street and other work going on that could well wait until after the war. Perhaps the last straw of this kind was the recent regilding of that gingerbread atrocity called the Albert Memorial, a pretentious but artistically unspeakable monument erected at the instance of the late Queen Victoria in honor of the amiable but colorless *German* Prince whom she had taken as her Royal Consort.

"MOBILIZING" A NATION'S SAVINGS

The awakening "war consciousness," to which I have alluded as operating to make the British people ready to take up the burden of increased taxation, will also operate to make them eager and willing to follow a strong lead on the score of personal saving. But that lead they must have, and it must be introduced by a drastic campaign of public saving to set an example.

The publication in the London papers during October of accounts detailing the remarkable work Herr Rathenau has accomplished in Germany in "mobilizing" resources has created a strong demand that something of the kind be undertaken in England before it is too late. As that country undoubtedly has economic and industrial experts little if any less capable than Rathenau, one may confidently expect that a thorough and systematic "war-savings" campaign will be in full swing in England before the winter is over.

THE APPROACHING DEFICIT

Even assuming, however, that such a campaign would result in making it possible for Great Britain to raise by taxation the maximum sum mentioned by Professor Scott,—\$5,000,000,000,—there will remain a huge and constantly mounting sum to be found by other means. With the launching of the scarcely anticipated Balkan campaign, there

is little doubt that the \$25,000,000 limit set by Mr. McKenna as the daily cost of the war to England at the end of 1915 will be considerably exceeded, and that this may have increased by spring to as much as thirty, or even thirty-five, million. Thirty million dollars a day works out to pretty nearly \$11,000,000,000 a year, or more than twice as much as the maximum set by Professor Scott as raisable by taxation under the most favorable circumstances.

How is this deficit to be met? By loans, is the obvious answer. True; but how long can England go on raising loans at the rate of \$5,000,000,000 or more a year? A year undoubtedly; probably two years; possibly three years. But with the prolongation of the war there must ultimately come a point beyond which even this richest of the belligerents cannot go without recourse to something more than the orthodox expedients of taxation and loan. What then?

Then,—always supposing that the determination of the people is unbroken,—the time will have come for the "capital tax," a sort of general liquidation of private property for State ends. That this extreme contingency has not been unconsidered may be seen from the following extract from a recent article by the conservative financial editor of the *London Observer*:

A year ago we pointed out that loans running into several thousands of millions of pounds might have to be faced. To-day we regard it as a thing certain and partly accomplished. We have to consider later a permanent load of debt to the country. The interest burden may well be so great that the question of redemption is well-nigh impracticable. And so we come back to another suggestion, made months ago in these columns, and now more generally discussed. Is it possible to avoid a "capital tax," however bad the principle may be? And is it not, on the whole, the best way, after the war, to face the problem,—to "cut the national loss," so to speak?

It should be borne in mind that such a measure as this is very unlikely to be resorted to while the war is still in progress, even though the latter be greatly protracted. Afterwards, with the financial burden greater than could be borne, it might be resorted to as the best way out of the difficulty. It should be noted in this connection that Germany, in floating a war loan which she admittedly will be unable to repay unless she obtains a decisive victory and exacts an indemnity, is practically resorting to what might be described as a cross between a gamble and a "capital tax" at the end of the

first year of the great struggle. As long as she retains the command of the seas, Great Britain's financial position, at its worst, will be,—from a "world viewpoint,"—better than that of any other belligerent in either camp.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH LOAN

The American exchange difficulty was another of the war problems which was left for Mr. McKenna, and the solution of it by means of the recent Anglo-French loan met with wide, if not quite unanimous, approval in London. The principal critics of this loan have been of the ultra-insular type of "City" banker, whose viewpoint is too narrow, and whose prejudices are too strong, to permit him to comprehend that conditions in New York, Chicago, Timbuctu, or any other "outlandish" place might conceivably vary somewhat from those in London. These, noting only that while the latest British war loan was floated in London at 4½ per cent. the Anglo-French Loan in New York was costing near to 6 per cent., did a deal of loose talking regarding the way in which the Yankee was taking his "pound of flesh."

Bankers and writers with any appreciation of world finance, however, knowing how New York rates are close to 2 per cent. higher than London in ordinary times; and cognizant of the abnormal demand for money created in the United States by an unprecedented commercial and industrial expansion, fully realized how favorable the terms really were. This was explained with admirable lucidity by Mr. McKenna in passing the Loan Bill through the Commons in the middle of October, when

he also laid especial emphasis on his intention not to omit any measure calculated as likely to stabilize American exchange.

What direction these efforts will take has not yet been indicated, but there is good reason to believe that before long something in the nature of a "compulsory mobilization" of British-held foreign securities may be attempted, these to be sold, as the state might see fit, to satisfy obligations abroad without the export of gold. This suggestion has already been advanced in Parliament, and, drastic as it is, there is no doubt that many will be found to advocate resorting to it in preference to another foreign loan.

WILL MCKENNA TOSS THE DECIDING MILLIONS INTO THE WAR BALANCE?

The foregoing will give some idea of the difficulties which have beset the new Chancellor of the Exchequer in performing the task which was thrust upon him of maintaining the bombardment of "the silver bullet." The fact that he is gaining in prestige with every week that passes is, perhaps, the best evidence of how well he is succeeding with it. It was Mr. Asquith, I believe, who said that the country which could throw the last hundred million pounds onto the war scale would be the victor. Judging from the effectiveness of his first tentative tosses, there seems good reason to believe that the mighty honor of raising and throwing the decisive sum into the teetering war balance will fall to the keen, quiet, resourceful McKenna, the man who has been content to let others do the talking while he gave expression to his energies in acts instead of words.



THE RECORD-BREAKER

MCKENNA (the "Try-your-strength" Man): "Now, Guv'nor; let's see if you can't touch the 1500 mark."
JOHN BULL: "Righto!" (Does it).

From *Punch* (London)

HOW BRITAIN PAYS HER WAR BILLS

CURRENT war expenditures in Great Britain are at the rate of \$22,000,000 a day. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has given warning that they may increase, and that, with the addition of expenditures for ordinary services, the Government may soon be faced with the problem of raising \$30,000,000 a day. In the last year of peace the rate was about one-twelfth as high.

Two methods have been adopted for finding these huge sums. The principal one is the borrowing of the savings of people within and without the British Empire. This money must be repaid after the war is over. The effect is to lessen the immediate financial burdens of war by spreading them over a long period. The second method of finding money is to increase as much as possible the ordinary forms of taxation,—to begin at once, as it were, the main task of liquidating the war debt.

A year ago new taxation was devised by Mr. Lloyd George, then Chancellor, which brings in additional yearly revenue of \$342,500,000. His successor, Mr. McKenna, has since discovered ways to bring in \$535,000,000 more. Altogether, at the present daily expenditure of \$22,000,000, these increases would carry on the war for just forty days, or approximately one-ninth of each year. It is therefore obvious that it will take eight years of peace, with war taxes continued, to pay for every year of war.

Small as this additional revenue may seem when contrasted with the huge amount raised by loans, it nevertheless means great financial burdens for the people, in addition to those to which they had become accustomed.

During a recent debate in the House of Commons, Mr. Montagu, Financial Secretary to the Treasury, set forth "the real nature of the situation" which Great Britain has to meet. We quote from his speech, as follows:

We have first of all kept, and we have to keep, an impregnable and inviolable Navy. We have, in the second place, paid for, and we continue to pay for, an Army which has increased from a few thousands to an Army which runs

into millions. Third, we are finding by loan to our Great Dominions part of the expenditure of the contingents that they are bringing into the line of battle. Fourth, as regards India, we are paying the whole of the burden of the Indian contingents, except the normal peace expenditure. Fifth, we have advanced to our Allies such sums as it is estimated in some quarters would keep and maintain in the field three millions of their soldiers. . . . The only reason I draw the attention of the House to these facts is that we have a right to be proud of the share that we in this country are contributing in this great War.

THE NEW TAXES

At a time when all thinking persons in the United States are interested in their own Government's problem of meeting increased expenditures with depleted revenues, it is instructive to note the measures taken by Great Britain in her emergency. We therefore set forth below the essential portions of Chancellor McKenna's proposals (as printed in full in the weekly edition of the *London Times*), together with some editorial comment in representative English financial periodicals.

The principal form of new taxation is a 40 per cent. increase in the rates on incomes. The exemption line is also lowered, to include those earning as little as \$13.35 weekly (\$700 yearly) who will pay 23 cents a week (\$12 a year) to the Government. Incomes of \$1000 a year (\$19.25 a week) will be taxed \$45 annually, or 90 cents weekly. Those with incomes of from \$2000 to \$5000 a year will pay approximately 10 per cent. to the Government. Incomes of \$25,000 a year will be taxed about 20 per cent. The possessor of an income of \$500,000 will be called upon to pay \$170,000,—more than a third of his income. These income-tax changes, it is estimated, will produce \$235,000,000 more than the old rates.

The next source of additional revenue devised by Chancellor McKenna is what he calls an "excess profits" tax, imposed upon businesses (with a very limited number of exceptions) whose annual profits have increased more than \$500 since the war began. It is assumed that these profits are greater because of conditions brought about by the

war; and the Government proposes to take half of the increase. The estimate of revenue to be obtained annually in this way is \$150,000,000.

Under the heading of "customs and excise," the most important source of additional revenue will be sugar, the price of which (now a Government monopoly) will be raised one cent a pound. The new price to the retail consumer will be eight cents a pound for ordinary granulated sugar. (This compares with six cents in New York City.) The anticipated revenue from the increase in sugar will be \$58,000,000 yearly. The existing duties on tobacco, tea, cocoa, coffee, chicory, and dried fruits have been raised 50 per cent. Thus the revenue from tobacco will be increased to \$75,000,000 from the previous \$50,000,000. The duty on tea is raised to 24 cents a pound (from 16 cents), and the revenue from that source alone becomes \$67,500,000 instead of \$45,000,000. The reader will remember that whereas the people of the United States drink coffee primarily, the English are addicted to tea. The income from cocoa, coffee, chicory, and dried fruits, combined, even at the new rates, is only \$7,000,000.

Import duties amounting to one-third the value of the articles are placed upon patent medicines, automobiles, motor cycles, moving-picture films, clocks, watches, musical instruments, plate glass, and hats. In some of these cases the tax is imposed not so much to produce revenue, as to discourage imports and thus to reduce consumption and enforce economy.

Finally, Chancellor McKenna has raised postal, telegraph, and telephone rates so as to increase the receipts by \$20,000,000 annually. He called attention to the fact that very heavy taxes had already been imposed on beer, in the budget of last year. The truth is that the intention of some months ago to add to the taxes on beer and other alcoholic beverages met such crushing opposition that the present cabinet did not dare to stir up the liquor question again at this time.

"INSUFFICIENT AND INADEQUATE"

Commenting upon Mr. McKenna's proposals, the editor of the *Statist* declares that they completely fail to meet the situation.

We quote from his remarks, as follows:

It is recognized that Mr. McKenna has been extraordinarily painstaking in endeavoring to be moderate and to avoid all unfairness and harshness. Nevertheless, everyone who has given any serious study to the matter, whether in Parliament or in the City, recognizes that it completely fails to meet the situation, and that fresh proposals need to be made without delay. Even Mr. McKenna himself seems to have come to the conclusion that the proposals he has so far placed before Parliament need to be supplemented.

The editor of the *Statist* declares it to be obvious that average savings have been very greatly increased (1) by abnormal profits, (2) by the transfer of men to the army, where they are maintained by the Government, and (3) by the decreased pay-rolls of employers. Most of the enlisted men, one gathers from his remarks, have so far come from the leisure class and from the "luxury trades." He pleads for vast reductions in the expenditures of the people. We quote from the editorial again:

The British people must use their capital and their credit as far as they can, but they must also resort to the greatest of all reserves that a nation possesses, the power of a determined people to deny themselves luxuries and comforts. . . . The only thing required is that the Government should let the country know what is needed, and should distribute the taxation or levy in such a way that all classes are convinced they are dealt with fairly.

The editor of the London *Economist*, also, believes that the new taxes are inadequate,—both as means of raising additional revenue and as means of diminishing the consumption of luxuries. He feels that there is "urgent necessity for much stronger measures of taxation than those which have been adopted." We quote further from his editorial:

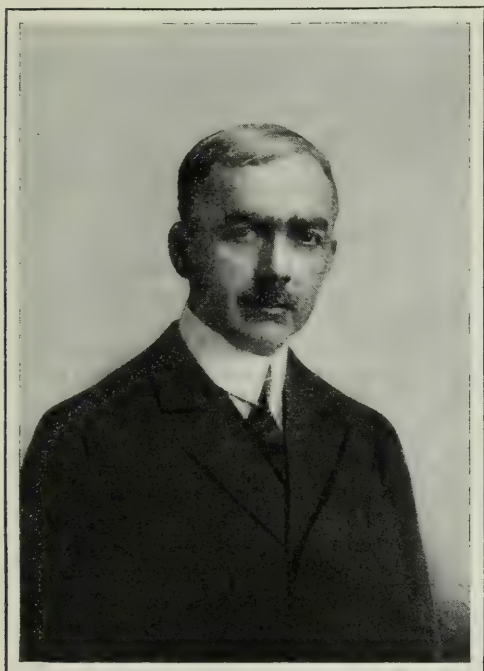
There is only one way of combining the maintenance of a Continental Army and the financial support of our Allies with the maintenance of the command of the seas; and that is by taking from the current income of the country such a tremendous toll of taxation that a large fraction of the war expenditure can be paid out of current revenue, and that the imports are brought down to the level of our exportable surplus.

"At such a time," the editor of the *Economist* declares, "tax-paying is not a burden, but a privilege."

A PARCEL-POST LIBRARY SYSTEM

HOW THE STATE OF WISCONSIN FURNISHES BOOKS TO HOMES WHERE LIBRARIES ARE UNKNOWN

BY FRED L. HOLMES



SECRETARY MATTHEW S. DUDGEON OF THE WISCONSIN FREE LIBRARY COMMISSION
(Originator of the parcel-post library plan)

TWENTY years ago Frank Hutchins, with a sympathetic understanding of the book hunger of the boy and girl on the farm, instituted the traveling library system in Wisconsin, which enabled any group of citizens to place in their midst a box of the best books in the world. To get these books, however, required united action and a certain community spirit on the part of the applicants. There are sections so sparsely settled that there is no hope for united action. Some time ago the State Library Commission made a house-to-house canvass in a pioneer territory covering one hundred and fifty square miles in the northern part of the State. It found only twenty-one homes. Five of these

twenty-one had no book, not even the Bible, and four more had nothing except the Bible.

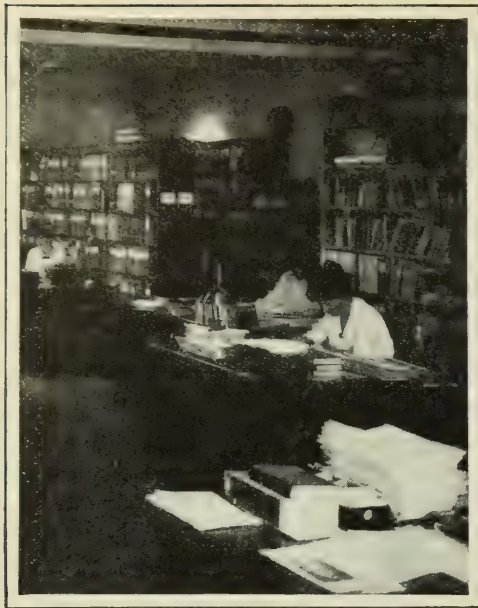
Further to carry out the Hutchins idea, and to enable the single individual to obtain a book even though no other individual joined with him, the parcel-post system of delivery of books was established by the State.

Andrew Carnegie has spent several ordinarily large fortunes erecting library buildings in many cities over the United States. Doubtless as much good will be accomplished by Matthew S. Dudgeon, secretary of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, as the result of his founding a parcel-post library system, accessible alike to the people in city and country, wherever the mail-pouch of Uncle Sam is carried. This idea is no more acclimated to Wisconsin than to any other State or community. To-day it is rapidly growing to oak in the forest.

Once a farm lad, Dudgeon remembered how as a little boy, with his face against the window-pane in the old farmhouse, he waited to see only a team pass on the roadside to break his loneliness. It is this dreariness of the round of pasture, potato-lot, and corn-field that will require the ingenuity of men to alleviate before they can stop the unending migration of the youth of the country from the farm.

When the parcel post was extended to book shipments, an idea struck Librarian Dudgeon, which may help solve the country-life problem. Located in Madison were four libraries with an aggregate of about half a million books and pamphlets owned by the State. The most famous is the State Historical Library, which has become a Mecca for students delving for inaccessible information and original history source material. Came here in his journeys as a student, Theodore Roosevelt, gathering facts for his since famous "Winning of the West,"—and scores of others.

Now, why not furnish these books to in-



PARCEL-POST LIBRARY HEADQUARTERS

(Answering requests for books that are to go to all parts of the State by parcel post)

dividuals where libraries are unknown, asked the librarian of himself. These State libraries belong to the taxpayers, he reasoned, and they are as much the property of the lone settlers on a clearing in northern Wisconsin as they are of the citizens of Madison or the students of the State University situated there.

After consulting a parcel-post map, he called in the newspaper representatives and gave them this story: "Hereafter the State will loan any book in the State's libraries to citizens who will pay transportation charges." These charges, he figured, should not exceed five cents a volume.

The ink of the first announcement was scarcely dry when the following letter was received from a little post-office the library clerks had never heard of before:

Gentlemen: Kindly send to the undersigned at address given, Evers Touching Second. If I cannot get this, send me instead, Matthewson Pitching in a Pinch. Five cents in postage is enclosed.

"Touching Second" was promptly sent to this baseball enthusiast, and thirteen days later the same lad sent for "Pitching in a Pinch."

The second letter ran as follows: "Will you kindly send me some material on onion culture, something that would be practicable

for Wisconsin farming?" Then came scores of letters asking for books that give information on weeds, mushrooms common to northern Wisconsin, Germany and the next war, dairying, including milk production, the care of babies, diseases of animals and feeding, handy farm devices, practical silo construction, repairing automobiles, and requests for fiction ranging from Scott and Dickens to Churchill's "The Inside of the Cup" and Porter's "Laddie." During the first eight months 743 requests were received. This seems small when compared with the volume of business of city libraries, but its importance cannot be measured in numbers alone.

Looking over the applications it is evident that the service goes to the remotest districts of the State, sometimes 250 miles from the State libraries. Some of the post-offices are unknown except to the postal guide. Many of the applications are from school teachers, who are getting the books not to make them available for one reader, but to make them available for the entire school. Often, too, some business man or community leader will get a book that is much in demand and lend it to all around him. For example, one banker borrowed two books,—Fraser: "The Potato"; Putnam: "The Gasoline Engine on the Farm." The books were retained so long that an inquiry brought the statement that both books had been circulating rapidly among a large number of different farmers; and the request that they be left longer, since the banker had a memorandum of many other farmers who wished to borrow the books as soon as they were obtainable. With each month the number and varying character of the orders have increased as information about the new plan is disseminated. With the reopening of the schools the volume of requests has nearly doubled.

The relative ratios of the character of books ordered are at variance with city library statistics generally. With the latter fiction comprises 70 per cent. of the books loaned. Of the first 743 orders received, which is characteristic of recent orders, 251, or 34 per cent., were fiction; 181, or 24 per cent., were for books on agriculture and home economics; and 311, or 42 per cent., related to history, science, biography, and travel.

Applicants must sign a statement, to be verified by the postmaster, teacher of the rural school, or some other responsible person, that the book will be carefully protected and will be returned after fourteen days unless an extension of time has been granted.

BUFFALO'S NEW EXPERIMENT IN GOVERNMENT

DISCARDING THE PROFESSIONAL POLITICIAN, AND ADOPTING
NON-PARTISAN RULE BY COMMISSION

BY M. M. WILNER

[The rapid spread of the commission form of city government has been one of the outstanding features of modern American politics. A Government bureau has estimated that one-third of our cities having a population of 30,000 or more have discarded administration by Mayor and Council and adopted the commission plan. Most of these cities are in the South and West. In the following article, Mr. Wilner writes of the adoption of commission government by Buffalo, the second largest city in New York, and also describes the result of the first election of commissioners.—THE EDITOR.]

THE city of Buffalo has just held its first election under a commission charter. As the largest city in the East and one of the largest in the United States to attempt this system of government, the results of the Buffalo experiment will be watched with much interest. The election on November 2 and the primary which preceded it were unusual enough to deserve wide attention. They were the first tests of any part of the commission charter in actual operation. The new form of government does not go into effect until the beginning of the new year, but it was necessary to elect the first commissioners in the manner prescribed by the charter.

This plan attempts to eliminate all party politics in the selection of city officials. Any citizen could become a candidate at the primary by filing a petition containing 100 signatures. There are only five elective offices in the entire city government. This year there were only four places to be filled, as the present Mayor is allowed by the charter to serve out his term.

No less than forty-eight men filed petitions to be nominated for these four offices. Included in the list were many of the old members of the Common Council, several of the men who had led the fight for the commission charter, two former members of the State Senate who had been instrumental in having the charter adopted, several business and professional men who were entirely new to politics, and the Commissioner of Public Works, who has been in office for fourteen years and has built up the most powerful patronage machine in the city. Two of the

forty-eight aspirants withdrew before the primary.

The names of the remaining forty-six were printed on the primary ballot in alphabetical order without party classification or emblems, except that each name was numbered for the purpose of guiding the unlettered voters. Any voter who had registered last year had the right to attend the primary and make his cross before the names of any four candidates. The law provided that the eight who received the highest vote should be declared nominated.

DEFEAT OF PROFESSIONAL POLITICIANS

The result was startling. Not one of the old members of the Common Council won a place on the ticket. Only one man of the professional-politician type was successful, the Commissioner of Public Works. On the other hand, only one of the men who had been most active in agitating for the new charter was among the lucky eight. He was the most prominent of them all, called by his friends "the father of the charter."

The two former State Senators who had put the charter through the Legislature, despite the local political machines, were both nominated. The other four successful ones were a lawyer who had been president of the Better Buffalo Association, a prominent business man who had once been president of a railroad, a lumber dealer with a Germanic name, and a civil engineer,—hitherto almost unknown,—who offered himself solely on the ground of his technical knowledge. Of these men, four were Republicans, three were Democrats, and one was a Pro-

gressive. About 66,000 votes were cast at this primary, out of a total registration of approximately 80,000.

A lively campaign of three weeks followed. Frequently the eight candidates appeared on the stump together, but in the main it was each man for himself. At the election, the eight names were placed on the voting machines in a column by themselves and in alphabetical order. There were no symbols or other party designations.

The big surprise was the defeat of the Commissioner of Public Works,—the one representative of the old style of politics who had survived the primary. Despite the fact that his "machine" following alone was good for 20,000 votes, he received only about 30,000 at the election. Somewhat to the chagrin of the reformers, the leader who was called "the father of the charter" also failed by a narrow margin. The four elected were the two business men, the lawyer, and one of the former State Senators. Two of these are Republicans and two are Democrats. Except the former Senator, none of them has ever before held public office or been at all active in politics.

So far as the charter was intended to eliminate the old politician crowd and considerations of partisanship from the city government, it is a great success.

One unfortunate element which entered into the campaign was the sectarian religious issue. A secret anti-Catholic organization indorsed four men both at the primaries and at the election. A Catholic organization also had its preferred list at the primary. Only one actual member of the Catholic church was nominated, but the Catholic organization supported for election the four whom the anti-Catholics had not indorsed. This issue affected the result to some extent, though neither of the religious factions controlled the situation. One of the men endorsed by the anti-Catholics and three of those endorsed by the Catholics were successful. Of these only one is a Catholic himself. None of the candidates openly sought religious support.

DUTIES AND POWERS OF THE COMMISSIONERS

These four men, with the hold-over Mayor, will on January 1 take full control of the city. They will combine in themselves both the executive and the legislative powers. They will be the Common Council, passing on all appropriations, tax levies, and local ordinances. The Mayor merely has a

vote as one of them. He is allowed no veto power. They will also be the heads of the executive departments.

For administrative purposes the city is divided into five departments,—public safety (fire, police, and health), public works, finance, public affairs (schools and charities), parks and public buildings. The department of public safety is vested by law in the Mayor. The Councilmen will apportion the other four departments among themselves.

About a dozen of the principal subordinate offices,—such as corporation counsel, assessor, superintendent of education, etc.,—are to be filled by appointment by the entire council on nominations made by the Mayor. Lesser appointments are to be made by the Council on nominations made by the head of the department in which the appointee is to serve. Wide latitude is given the Council in the creation and elimination of offices, but the civil service must be under the rules prescribed by the State law.

The charter provides for a referendum on all franchises, and in certain conditions on other matters, but it does not include the initiative or the recall. All sessions must be public, all votes individually recorded, and reports both of Council proceedings and of the city's financial condition must be published regularly.

The terms of office are four years. The term of the hold-over Mayor, however, expires in two years, and the Councilman who received the lowest vote also drew a two-year term. Hence, in 1917 a Mayor and one Councilman will be elected, in 1919 three Councilmen, and thereafter this alternation will continue. There never will be more than three city offices to be filled by election at the same time. There are no ward offices. Salaries are \$7000 a year for Councilmen and \$8000 for the Mayor.

Buffalo worked for nearly ten years to get this charter. It was repeatedly defeated in the Legislature, but public opinion became stronger after each defeat. The people would not be denied. The charter was once vetoed by the Mayor and repassed over his veto. It was fought by the politicians from beginning to end, and always with boastful confidence on their part that it never would win, or never would work if it should win. It was adopted at a referendum in 1914 by a majority of 15,741 out of a total vote of 57,253. The politicians are still boasting that they will get the better of it, but the people have confidence.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WAR'S REFLECTIONS IN THE WORLD'S REVIEWS

IN the following pages we summarize and quote from various articles appearing in American and foreign journals, which reflect the attitude of public opinion, in various parts of the world, towards the central world fact of current history,—the great war in Europe. Shortly after the outbreak of the war this magazine began publishing digests of important articles as they appeared from month to month in the various belligerent countries, and in this way we have communicated to our readers expressions of opinion in every country affected.

As the year 1915 is drawing to a close there is no diminution in the proportion of space devoted by the leading European reviews to matters pertaining to the war. In the *Contemporary* (London) for November, for example, nine of the fourteen contributed articles are on war topics. Among these the following are especially noteworthy: "Italy and England," by Romolo Murri; "Armenia: Is It the End?" by Aneurin Williams, M. P.; "Serbia's Need and Britain's Danger," by R. W. Seton-Watson; "Some Truths About the Dardanelles," by Sydney A. Moseley; "A Study of a War Giving," by W. Dowding; and a series of comments on developments in the Balkans by Dr. E. J. Dillon.

The *Fortnightly* (London) for November has two articles dealing with the present situation in the Balkans, and in the same magazine Robert Crozier Long explains the conditions that threaten to temper Sweden's neutrality, while another contributor comments on the valor of the Italian soldiers.

Two articles in the *Nineteenth Century* are concerned with the crisis in the Balkans. A Serbian writer traces the Balkan policy of Austria to German instigation, and that to a desire to create a greater Germany in Asia Minor. Another contributor, Mr. James Ozanne, intimates that the Balkan expedition, by weakening the offensive of the Germans and Austrians elsewhere, may prove

in the end advantageous to the Allies.

The editor of the *National Review* (London) remarks epigrammatically: "We have nothing to fear from the enemy; but everything from ourselves." The chief sources of the dangers to the Empire that the editor seems to have in mind are the panic-mongers and pessimists of Downing Street. He urges the immediate evacuation of Gallipoli, and in general a policy of concentration of forces.

Turning to publications on our own side of the Atlantic, we find in the *North American Review* for November a trio of serious and weighty articles suggested by the conflict in Europe. Professor Munroe Smith, whose article on "Military Strategy Versus Diplomacy in Bismarck's Time and Afterwards" in the *Political Science Quarterly* was quoted at some length in these pages several months ago, discusses the probable results of strict adherence to the Bismarckian policy of awaiting an attack from Russia and France instead of taking the initiative.

Professor Albert Bushnell Hart declares that we must prepare ourselves to meet European aggression in South America, or else must abandon the Monroe Doctrine altogether. But, even in the latter event, he maintains that European settlements in America will sooner or later involve the United States.

Rear-Admiral Bradley A. Fiske, U.S.N., contributes an exposition of naval principles from the professional viewpoint.

The *Atlantic Monthly* for November contains several vivid accounts of personal experiences in the war zone.

In the December *Century* "The British Foreign Policy and Sir Edward Grey" is the title of an article contributed by Arthur Bullard. In the same magazine Cosmo Hamilton argues that the British political-party system is responsible for the war. The first instalment of Walter Hale's "Notes of an Artist at the Front," with the author's drawings, appears in this number.

EUROPE'S STUPENDOUS WAR BILLS

IF anybody had attempted, before the present war broke out, to visualize the state of mind in which this country would watch the progress of such a conflict as the one now raging, he probably would have taken it for granted that our newspapers and magazines would be filled with articles setting forth the wickedness, stupidity, and painful consequences of warfare in general. As a matter of fact, the enormous flood of war literature has contained comparatively little in the way of reiteration of the old arguments on this subject. Everything that could be said against the hoary institution of war was said long ago, and apparently to little purpose. Many people have, no doubt, refrained from voicing their sentiments for this reason.

Yet, in a sense, it is possible to bring a new indictment against war, because one now has at one's disposal the old arguments multiplied by ten,—or whatever ratio the present unparalleled struggle may bear to the greatest wars of the past. Chancellor David Starr Jordan has been making conspicuous use of these reënforced arguments. Thus, in a recent address before the Insurance Congress at the Panama-Pacific Exposition, he dealt with the economics of the present upheaval in figures that take one's breath away. His address, "War, Business, and Insurance," is published in the *Scientific Monthly* (New York).

Dr. Jordan traces the history of national debts, which, as he points out, are virtually all war debts.

The chief motive for borrowing on the part of every nation has been war or preparation for war. If it were not for war no nation on earth need ever have borrowed a dollar. If provinces and municipalities could use all the taxes their people pay, for purposes of peace, they could pay off all their debts and start free. In Europe, for the last hundred years, in time of so-called peace, nations have paid more for war than for anything else. It is not strange therefore that this armed peace has "found its verification in war."

At the close of the Napoleonic wars Great Britain owed \$4,430,000,000.

The savings of peace duly reduced this debt, but the Boer war, for which about \$800,000,000 was borrowed, swept these savings away. When the present war began the national debt had been reduced to a little less than \$400,000,000, which sum a year of world war has brought up to \$10,000,000,000.

The debt of France dates from the French Revolution. Through reckless management it

soon rose to \$700,000,000, which sum was cut by paper money, confiscation, and other repudiations to \$160,000,000. This process of easing the government at the expense of the people spread consternation and bankruptcy far and wide. A great program of public expenditure following the costly [Franco-Prussian] war and its soon repaid indemnity raised the debt of France to over \$6,000,000,000. The interest alone amounted to nearly \$1,000,000,000. A year of the present war has brought this debt to the unheard of figure of about \$11,000,000,000. Thus nearly two million bondholders and their families in and out of France have become annual pensioners on the public purse, in addition to all the pensioners produced by war.

Germany is still a very young nation and as an empire more thrifty than her largest state. The imperial debt was in 1908 a little over \$1,000,000,000. The total debt of the empire and the states combined was about \$4,000,000,000 at the outbreak of the war. It is now stated at about \$9,000,000,000, a large part of the increase being in the form of "patriotic" loans from helpless corporations.

Before the present war began the nations of Europe were already up to their ears in debt, owing to the staggering cost of "preparedness." Their total national bonded indebtedness amounted to about \$30,000,000,000, or nearly three times the value of all the gold and silver in the world.

Yves Guyot, the French economist, estimates that the first six months of war cost western Europe in cash \$5,400,000,000, to which should be added further destruction estimated at \$11,600,000,000, making a total of \$17,000,000,000. The entire amount of coin in the world is less than \$12,000,000,000. Edgar Crammond, secretary of the Liverpool Stock Exchange, another high authority, estimates the cash cost of a year of war, to August 1, 1915, at \$17,000,000,000, while other losses will mount up to make a grand total of \$46,000,000,000. Mr. Crammond estimates that the cost to Great Britain for a year of war will reach \$3,500,000,000. This sum is about equivalent to the accumulated war debt of Great Britain for a hundred years before the war. The war debt of Germany (including Prussia) is now about the same.

No one can have any conception of what \$46,000,000,000 may be. It is four times all the gold and silver in the world. It represents, it is stated, about 100,000 tons of gold, and would probably outweigh the Washington Monument. We have no data as to what monuments weigh, but we may try a few calculations. If this sum were measured out in \$20 gold pieces and they were placed side by side on the railway track, on each rail, they would line with gold every line from New York to the Pacific Ocean, and there would be enough left to cover each rail of the Siberian railway from Vladivostock to Petrograd. There would still be enough left to rehabilitate Belgium and to buy the whole of Turkey, at her own valuation, wiping her finally from the map.

The cost of this war would pay the national debts of all the nations in the world at the time the war broke out, and this aggregate sum of \$45,000,000,000 for the world was all accumulated in the criminal stupidity of the wars of the nineteenth century. If all the farms, farming lands, and factories of the United States were wiped out of existence, the cost of this war would more than replace them. If all the personal and real property of half our nation were destroyed, or if an earthquake of incredible dimensions should shake down every house from the Atlantic to the Pacific, the waste would be less than that involved in this war.

Or we may calculate (with Dr. Edward T. Devine) in a totally different way. The cost of this war would have covered every moral, social, economic, and sanitary reform ever asked for in the civilized world, in so far as money properly expended can compass such results. It could eliminate infectious disease, feeble-mindedness, the slums, and the centers of vice. It could provide adequate housing, continuity of labor, insurance against accident; in other words it could abolish almost every kind of suffering due to outside influences and not inherent in the character of the person concerned.

The fatuity of ascribing the war to commercial rivalry between Germany and Great

Britain is shown by the colossal losses which the war has imposed on the commerce of both countries,—losses which German and British business men must have foreseen would follow inevitably from such a conflict. Dr. Jordan points out, *inter alia*, its disastrous consequences to the great German steamship companies, the Hamburg-American and Nord-Deutscher Lloyd.

Again, did the Cunard Company build her three great steamships, the *Mauretania*, the *Lusitania*, the *Aquitania* for the fate which has come to them? In 1914 I saw the *Aquitania*, finest of all floating palaces, tied by the nose to the wharf at Liverpool, the most sheepish-looking steamship I ever saw anywhere. Out of her had been taken \$1,250,000 worth of plate glass and plush velvet, elevators and lounging-rooms, the requirements of the tender rich in their six days upon the sea. The whole ship was painted black, filled with coal—to be sent out to help the warships at sea. And for this humble service, I am told she proved unfitted.

No, commercial envy is not a reason, rivalry in business is not a reason, need of expansion is not a reason. These are excuses only, not causes of war. There is no money in war.

SHOULD WAR PROFITS BE TAXED?

IN a recent issue of *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) is an article on the expediency of levying a tax on war profits. The writer, while admitting the undeniable fact that some individuals and companies are making much larger gains than in ordinary times, urges that, on the other hand, the manufacturers have many risks and difficulties to encounter. Of this, he says:

The price of raw materials varies sharply from day to day, so that for self-protection the manufacturer needs to demand a broad margin of profit. In the second place, the exceptional character of the orders often entails the building of new plants, or at least extensive and costly remodeling of old ones, and it remains very doubtful whether these can be successfully utilized after the war. Should this not prove possible, then the price obtained for the articles contracted for must be sufficient to provide an adequate sinking-fund.

In the majority of cases, overtime work becomes necessary, with a resulting rise in wages and more arduous application on the part of the managers, all of which should fairly be considered as affecting extra profits, for whoever works longer or harder is entitled to a greater recompense.

Still, making all due allowance for these drawbacks, the writer is quite willing to admit, what everyone knows, that in some

quarters the profits are excessive, and that a government is quite justified in taking measures to protect itself from a ruthless exploitation of the present urgent needs. How this may best be done is an open question.

This writer believes that instead of imposing a heavy tax on profits, which could scarcely be impartially levied and would work much hardship in certain cases, the most expedient course would be to forbid the companies to make an immediate distribution of the major part of the profits among the shareholders. By restricting the dividends to 6 per cent. annually, there would remain, in most instances, a large surplus which could either be expended directly in developing the plants, or else would be invested in other enterprises, thus increasing the industrial growth of the nation. If, however, this capital were divided up among a number of shareholders, it would in most cases mean only a small addition to the income of each recipient, and would cease to be a factor for raising the industrial status of Italy. Of the shareholder's probable attitude in regard to this, he writes:

If that tame creature, the Italian shareholder, could be able to understand his own true interests, he would be the first to protest against an

increase of the dividend rate, especially under present conditions. A larger dividend is no advantage, even in normal times, until the enterprise is firmly established, with ample resources and properly adjusted sinking-funds. But at the present time, a high dividend rate, one not based on the permanent and normal profits of an undertaking, but on exceptional war profits, would be distinctly unwise. As soon as the war ceases, the abnormal profits will cease with it, and the dividend will have to be lowered.

The greatest evil is that an increased dividend

would cause a temporary rise in the price of the stock. The shrewd shareholder would unload his shares, at a high figure, upon some unwary buyer, who would later on have to put up with a fall both in the dividend rate and in the price of the stock he imprudently acquired. For this reason a far-seeing investor will not buy shares which pay larger dividends because of the war, but will give the preference to those enterprises which use their increased returns to amass an ample surplus or to enlarge their facilities for production.

REVIVAL OF PLANS FOR A CHANNEL TUNNEL

SOME years ago there was a lively agitation of the project for constructing a tunnel underneath the English Channel. The affair fell through, chiefly, perhaps, because of England's fear of anything which would break the completeness of her insularity. But back of this, possibly, was a latent suspicion of her hereditary foe, Johnny Crapaud. Even then, advocates of the scheme pointed out that it was comparatively easy to avoid invasion by that means either by blocking or blowing up the entrance or by a defense requiring very small numbers of men.

Now that Germany has turned out to be the long-feared adversary, and has threatened English supplies with her submarines, the matter takes on a different aspect. It is not strange, therefore, that the project should be again proposed. A writer in *La Nature* (Paris) thus discusses its advantages:

A logical consequence of the war should be the realization of this famous project, whose execution has long been quite practicable, and which was discarded by England for political reasons alone. It would seem that henceforth political reasons would be most cogent of all for the consummation of the scheme. The splendid insular isolation of our allies is at the present moment a very grave inconvenience for them. It renders peculiarly sensitive their vulnerability to the German submarines which are harassing at once their commercial traffic and their military transports. . . .

The building of the Channel Tunnel, which could be kept open or shut at will, would place Great Britain in the exceptionally favorable situation of possessing the advantages of insularity without its inconveniences. France is pledged for a long period to the English alliance; no necessity for the closing of the tunnel, therefore, can be perceived.

The writer next discusses the practical questions involved. The proposed tunnel would need to be about twice as long as any

now in use on the continent, but its initial cost is hard to compute in terms of these because of the different problems involved. Even should it cost over \$40,000,000, however (200 million francs), he declares its advantages would heavily outweigh any possible expense. A parallel tunnel, even with double tracks, he believes, would not cost over \$10,000,000, the saving being due to the "ability to multiply the points of attack." This latter price is about on a level with the cost of ordinary land tunnels.

The proposition to employ one of the parallel tunnels as an automobile road he considers unfeasible for the reason given below:

I believe that this solution would result in mediocre returns. The returns of any roadway whatever depend above all on the possibility of causing whatever vehicles are employed to pass in regular succession at as short intervals as practicable. It would be impossible to exert upon any automobilists whatever the discipline necessary to secure such a rapid and regular succession.

The best method of moving them would certainly be to load them on cars on the trains. It would suffice to arrange for the minimum expenditure of time and formality to secure this result. Two tunnels, each double-tracked, would probably yield a revenue sufficient for running expenses even in the most critical periods of wartime.

Thus, for example, with properly regulated operation, each of the two would suffice to transport about four army corps per day; that is to say, that within a week an English army having a strength of 60 corps, could cross the channel, and come to resume, if need be, the good fight of 1915.

Under such circumstances English concentration towards Belgium or the Rhine would be almost as swift as French, "a condition essential for the avoiding of future Charle-vois." On the other hand Great Britain's revictualling would be a matter of security henceforth.

MR. ROOT, CHARACTERIZED BY A PROGRESSIVE

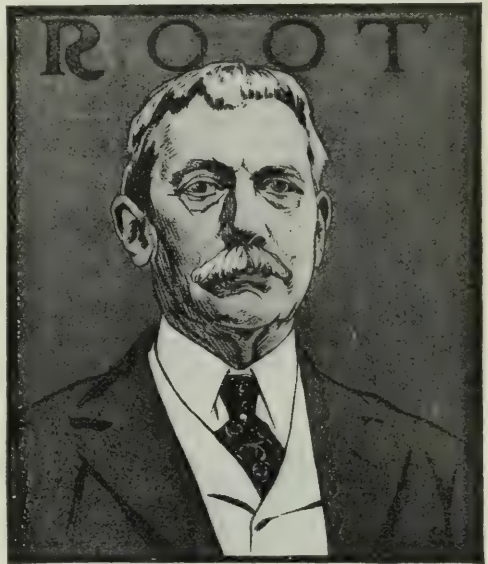
WE have previously noted articles in *Collier's* series called "Presidential Possibilities." In the issue for November 13, Elihu Root is brought forward as a prospective Republican candidate. The article is written by Professor Frederick M. Davenport. It derives interest from the fact that Davenport was the Progressive (Bull Moose) candidate for Governor of New York last year, running against the successful Republican, Mr. Whitman. Davenport is evidently prepared to help lead the Progressives back to the Republican fold on a liberal platform with Mr. Root as the standard-bearer.

Although Mr. Root has for a great many years been one of the leaders at the bar in New York City, except when serving in the Cabinet at Washington, he regards his real home as at Clinton, New York (a little town not far from Utica), which is the seat of Hamilton College. Mr. Davenport himself is Professor of Law and Politics in that College; and since Mr. Root is the chairman of the board of trustees and the dominant personal influence in the affairs of the institution, there is a natural sympathy between the talented Professor of Politics and the eminent Practitioner of Statesmanship.

THE REAL ROOT, ON HAMILTON COLLEGE CAMPUS

Mr. Davenport gives the reader a delightful impression of Mr. Root in the environment of this respectable little college in northern New York, as the following passage shows:

Elihu Root had his origin distant from the haunts or the ideals of Toryism or aristocracy. He was born on the campus of Hamilton College in central New York, a little democratic institution of two hundred students, far from the salt water, but well known because it has always stood for something and has turned out not a few graduates who have attracted the attention of the country. One of them is Elihu Root. He is the biggest of them. His father was the professor of mathematics, and the son inherited the precision of his mind. His brother was long on the faculty there; his boys were trained there, and he is at the head of the Board of Trust. He is wrapped up in Hamilton as Webster was in Dartmouth. Everybody remembers what Webster said to the Supreme Court in the famous national case which in the early years of the last century decided that a charter is a contract and that not even the State could steal the little institution from its honorable



REPRODUCTION OF "COLLIER'S" COLORED COVER

career: "She is a little college, but there are those who love her."

Elihu Root loves Hamilton. No commencement luncheon is complete without a word of cheer or wisdom from him; no opening year but listens to his salutation to the entering freshmen; no executive meeting without his broad and wise and kindly counsel. Cold? No sentiment? Tell that to the soldiers of the sea,—not to the graduates and undergraduates of Hamilton.

And when he rests from his many labors he loves to rest on College Hill, amid its quiet scenes and in its classic shade. It was of this home and these surroundings that he spoke in that recent remarkable address before the New York State Constitutional Convention in which he so strikingly analyzed the boss system of his State and its evil influence upon the government and the welfare of the commonwealth:

"There is a plain old house in the hills of Oneida overlooking the valley of the Mohawk where truth and honor dwell in my youth. When I go back, as I am about to go, to spend my declining years, I mean to go with a feeling that I can say I have not failed to speak and to act in accordance with the lessons I learned there from the God of my fathers."

He was the valedictorian of Hamilton, '64. College honors have been thick upon him in his later years. Leading universities at home and abroad have vied with one another in conferring upon him titles of distinction. For Elihu Root is not only a statesman and a great lawyer, but a genuine scholar. He is a thinking machine, and as much at home when he is addressing the members of Union University as honorary chancellor or Princeton University upon the essentials of the Constitution as in the forum of legal or political debates.

ROOT, HAMILTON,—JEFFERSON, ROOSEVELT

It is quite like a Professor of Political Science to offer,—as Mr. Davenport proceeds to do,—a philosophical analysis of Mr. Root's views. He is like Hamilton, we are told, but very different; just as Roosevelt is like Jefferson but also extremely unlike. We may pass over these parts of the article, because Root has been so long before the American public that his attitude is either understood or divined. Yet we may quote a little of the summing up:

It would be unfair to compare Root and Roosevelt with Hamilton and Jefferson. Root is not Hamilton. Neither is Roosevelt Jefferson. Root does not distrust democracy as Hamilton did, although he has the caution of Hamilton and the conservative sense of order and proportion and efficiency which Hamilton had. And Roosevelt is the antithesis of Jefferson except in his overmastering passion for democracy. And this has grown with his experience of the world. Power made Roosevelt a radical and an out-and-out idealist. He feels the tides first, and all the time he fights, either with or against the tide.

There is more national potency in these two men, in their personalities, in their combined philosophies, in their combined ideals, than in any other two men in the United States. When such different types honestly and earnestly cooperate, the country is best governed. It is ever to the advantage of national reaction and weakness and wrong, and ever to the disadvantage of national progress and power and right, that two such men should remain permanently apart.

And Elihu Root's philosophy goes far to explain his career. He early chose to get close to the sources of power in the country and to endeavor to get what of good he could out of them instead of fighting them. He has been accused of acting as legal counsel to one section of what is called the money power. Undoubtedly he has so acted. And, of course, the money power is entitled to counsel, and at times has needed it badly. And I have always noticed that a big corporation in trouble always hires the best lawyer to be had.

When it comes to past performances, Davenport makes a good case for his client. He shows how Root earned the Nobel Peace Prize by serving as a good Secretary of War. The Nobel Prize, however, came in reality to the ablest of our modern Secretaries of State. Mr. Root's relationship to South America is properly emphasized, as is his argument in the fisheries arbitration. Far too little, in view of the length of the article, is said about his specific achievements during five years as Secretary of War, and during another five years as Secretary of State. The fact that he opposed Senator Lorimer, of Illinois, is set forth at length; and following this passage is another long one entitled "Muzzling Mr. Barnes."

This has reference to Mr. Root's work as Chairman of the recent State Constitutional Convention. Evidently Mr. Davenport is trying to cater to the progressives and reformers. He seems to ignore the fact that Mr. Root as chairman named Barnes as head of the Committee on Legislative Powers,—the very committee for which the progressives regarded Barnes as most unfit.

We have already published in this magazine the great speech of Mr. Root in the Convention exposing and denouncing "invisible government," as exercised during the past half-century by party bosses and machines in New York. Mr. Davenport puts great stress upon Mr. Root's work as the leading liberal of the Convention. For example, he says:

The cleavage between Root and Barnes in the Convention was deep. Barnes was the conspicuous reactionary. Root was the conspicuous liberal. . . . The time has come when invisible government must give way to government that is accountable and responsible.

Mr. Davenport regards this recent attitude of Root as "the climax of the herculean labors of Roosevelt from the time of his Governorship to the verdict against Barnes in the trial at Syracuse." As for the deeds as well as the words of Root in the Albany Constitutional Convention, Mr. Davenport's praise is fully merited. The essential work of the Convention was on a par with the great constructive things that Root accomplished when he made the present frameworks of government for Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines. It was on a par with his achievements as Secretary of State. Mr. Davenport wrote his article, evidently, before the overwhelming defeat of the new Constitution at the polls; but Mr. Root's work was sound and efficient, and will ultimately be accepted.

Mr. Davenport does not try to give an explanation of Chairman Root's actions in the Chicago Convention of 1912,—the most shocking and abhorrent convention known in the history of American politics. Mr. Davenport himself hates that convention and all its ways and works; but he believes that Mr. Root will rise to greater heights in 1916, and that he will be the chief figure of the next Republican National Convention. He will then be seventy-two years old; but as Mr. Davenport truly tells us, he is at the very prime of his intellectual power, and has the physical vigor of a man of sixty. He will be missed from the Senate this winter.

GERMANY'S HOPE IN THE EAST

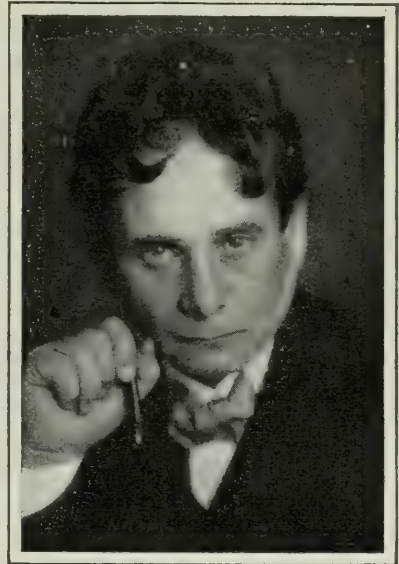
THE entire issue of Maximilian Harden's weekly organ, *Die Zukunft*, for October 9, is occupied by an article entitled "*Wird im Osten Licht?*"—"Is Light Dawning in the East?" The significance of recent developments in the Balkans is discussed by Harden after the grandiose fashion characteristic of his pen. The article is divided into three parts, under the successive heads: "What the Enemy Says," "At the Loom of Time," "To-Morrow." The middle section is a historical survey,—*more Germanico*, but with Harden's dramatic dash and color substituted for the ordinary German's heaviness,—of the making of the Balkan peoples into what they are; the story beginning with the entry of Basileios the Second into Constantinople 900 years ago, and ending with the events of our own day. Of this section it is quite impossible to convey any idea in abridgment. The first section of the article begins with the following presentation of the *rationale* of Bulgaria's conduct in the present crisis; and of the significance attaching to her espousal of the cause of the Central Empires:

When Russia was forced to give way in Galicia and deliver the mailed girdle of her western frontier to the German hosts, faith in the victory of the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey) became firmly rooted in the Bulgarian court.

The course of action of the Balkan states seemed prescribed to them by the force of circumstances; they dared not, in view of their very limited financial and industrial resources, intervene too early or too late in the European conflict,—should the opportunity of effective coöperation be neglected they would forfeit their part of the booty; it was theirs to interpose at a moment when the final outcome should be beyond all doubt and their help be still of considerable importance to the victor of to-morrow.

The racial impulse of the Balkan state so sorely wounded by the Treaty of Bucharest urged it, above the other Balkan powers, to discover the approach of that moment. Greece and Rumania could have their territorial integrity guaranteed by both groups of powers and feel sure that after the victory of the Allies they would not forfeit sections of Hungarian, Turkish, Albanian territory. For Finno-Slavic Bulgaria, hated by all her neighbors, promise and guarantee were no longer sufficient after her faith in the victory of the Allies had vanished.

That victory alone would secure for her the portion of Macedonia in Serbia's possession, since the Treaty of Bucharest (not the Grecian, the Drama-Kavala Zone), and the reversion of the section of the Dobrudja in Rumania's possession; should the other group of powers be victorious, policy might dictate that the Serbians be allowed



MAXIMILIAN HARDEN
(Editor of *Die Zukunft*)

to penetrate to the Adriatic, as a strong bulwark against Italian advance, and that no essential inroads be made upon their Macedonian possessions.

Convinced that the defensive strength of Russia,—even without the expected encircling and annihilation of its army, or a chief part of it,—was crushed, and that Germany's western front could not be pierced or driven back, Bulgaria determined to link her fate with the Triple Alliance.

In concluding the September treaty, by the terms of which the Turks, the arch-enemy of yesterday, yielded the Kingdom a considerable stretch of territory, Bulgaria resolved to shoulder arms against Serbia should the land of the Karageorgevitches be threatened by a German invasion.

Elation at this success of the German arms (a success which might be emphasized, not heightened, by a diplomat or an occasional emissary) was proclaimed from the housetops, sooner, perhaps, than was necessary or advisable, in Berlin and the press of other places. It might have been wiser to give this watchword until the actual advance of the Germans into Serbia: "We do not reckon upon assistance from Balkan quarters; Bulgaria hardly indeed knows herself against whom she is mobilizing."

The edge of the new alliance was hoisted like a festive banner,—and the last veil fell from the enemy's eyes. England in her strong, leisurely way looked upon the clearing of the situation as a gain, and prepared, without haste, to parry a danger which she had included in her reckoning,—but probably underrated, as she had others. France cried out in wrath, as if something inconceivably outrageous had occurred; what was said, as far back as the last week in September,

is noteworthy,—because we can discern the temper and will which animated it.

Then follow a number of extracts from leading organs of French opinion, expressive at once of intense anxiety lest the Entente Powers should intervene too late to check Bulgaria and save Serbia, of bitter resentment at the game that Bulgaria was playing, and of indignation over the ending of it which seemed so plainly foreshadowed. Thus the extract from the *Temps* closes with these words: "Through her [Bulgaria's] dicker-ing with the Turks, under whose oppression the Balkans have groaned for centuries, with dishonored Germany, and with despised Austria, she has betrayed the cause of the Balkan peoples. If she shall dare to pursue her purpose to the end, she will earn the contempt of mankind and bring about her own destruction." Whereupon Harden interposes the inquiry, "Why then all this rage?"

In the third section of his article, entitled "To-Morrow," Harden sweeps over the possibilities that the future holds for the Balkan peoples, and dwells especially on the ambitions of Greece and the fulfilment of her unextinguishable dreams of greatness which may come out of the present upheaval. Then he turns to what is, after all, the one absorbing subject:

And what fruit does this new sowing of blood promise to Germany? You have seen how our enemies growl and mutter. They know what may spring from that battle-ground, and are raging, low or loud, that their leaders did not prepare for it sooner. (Rejoice, Teutons! Ephialtes, who showed Xerxes the way over the Kallidromas pass at Thermopylæ, is not native to your soil. During a full half-year the plan of the Eastern campaign was being worked out to its minutest detail,—and not betrayed to the enemy. Even to-day he deceives himself and others about essentials, and will only learn at the time of vintage the proper reverence for German energy and ability.)

Was any doubt possible? Was not the power that is shut off from the ocean bound to aim, as soon as the situation was smoothed on its eastern front, to destroy the last link that bound Russia to the Western powers, to free the Turks from the gradually approaching danger of want, and make its way to the Egean, the Black Sea? Would not the military heads of the enemy nations who had failed to foresee such a plan,—the one plan most essential,—deserve ignominious punishment?

The thoughts of German greatness, German superiority, German invincibility, that surge up in Harden's mind as he thus contemplates this triumph of her deep-laid plans, seem to be too overwhelming for ordinary expression. He breaks off his commentary,

and, without a word of introduction, pours out his feelings in a long Biblical passage, "God's word to Zephaniah."

With that invocation of national self-righteousness, drawn from an old dispensation, the article ends, but for the following closing words:

Clean lips and harmony among the nations: may this prayer sanctify the day of wrath. Again will young blood flow, noble manhood be resolved into torments of the maimed. That the victims of battle shall not be heaped up anew is the aim of the enormous outlay,—not as has been charged, to crush the valiant Serbian people; it needed not the superior force of three armies to accomplish that.

In the East, between Seret and Düna, not a stone in the wall is loosened. In the West, the sudden attack of our enemies, dictated by a consuming desire for victory and not justified by the degree of their preparedness, caused fearful losses and consigned tens of thousands of brave men to the pangs of captivity, yet nowhere has the iron front of the Germans been deeply furrowed.

The armed hosts, humanity, long fervently for a decision. It may come in the Southeast. As long as there is a glimmer of hope of Constantinople, Russia, Great Britain, France will hardly agree to enter into negotiations with the power which has shown itself the strongest. When Serbia and Russia lay down their arms, when Russia is almost totally separated from her allies, with no exit to Southeastern Europe, limited economically and as to armament to Archangel and Vladivostok, the office of custodian of the strait will fall to a German army, and the way be open to the Suez Canal. Perhaps good sense will then speak once more, shyly, with clean lips, of a wise regard for man, and the bloody fumes of dawn break into the rosy light of morning.

Egypt the Goal

IN an article entitled "Suez or Calais?" written for *Das Grösser Deutschland*, a weekly devoted to German world and colonial policy, Dr. Ernst Jäckh, one of the contributing editors of the journal, comments on the military possibility of an Egyptian campaign in these words: "From Calais England can be molested and harassed, from Suez England can be paralyzed and defeated."

That the German General Staff has more than a chimerical interest in the possibility, the ways and means of a campaign against Egypt, we may take for granted from the fact that military experiments have been going on since the beginning of this year with a view to ascertaining climatic and topographical conditions. Dr. Jäckh writes:

In January of this year a Turkish army corps executed the first preliminary march toward Egypt, starting from Syria by way of Sinai, and

accomplished the feat within four weeks. They succeeded in traversing the three hundred kilometers of desert in strenuous marches, in securing the provisions of water and foodstuffs, and in penetrating to the Canal through territory which had been abandoned by British troops. The German officers have only words of praise for the Turkish soldiers who bore want and hardships with unequalled cheerfulness. This expedition succeeded, furthermore, in crossing the Canal at two points and caused the English severe losses in some skirmishes before returning safely with important collected results of the enterprise.

This expedition was merely a preparation, an investigative trip with the view to collecting experiences, to ascertaining all conditions on the basis of which the real attack can be made. German engineers are now constructing a Syrian railroad and a Sinai railroad which will transport later the necessary heavy artillery. The road from Constantinople to Suez is free, and the road from Berlin to Constantinople must become so as a consequence of the decisive victories over Russia.

Dr. Jäckh considers this campaign of inestimable importance to Germany's future strategical position. He continues:

Therefore, even after a separate peace with Russia (if such a peace should become possible) the military conflict with England would have to be continued and carried through,—as far as Suez. The English counter-calculation has for years and decades retarded if not prevented the construction of these railways; the German and Turkish war promotes them and quickens their completion. On the day that the Mecca railroad traverses Sinai and the Bagdad railroad extends through Persia, both Egypt and India will be in reach of the Turkish army, and what the Turkish troops can accomplish after the regeneration of Turkey is confirmed by the singularly heroic struggles in the Dardanelles. The world-war will be fought from now on for the safety of the region between the Dardanelles and Suez, for the

permeating organization of a prosperous and strong Turkey through German methods, and for the safety of growing Germany against English hostility by establishing a continuous threat to the English world-center in or near Suez. Calais is much, Suez is more.

Paul Rohrbach, writing in the same journal, proceeds to summarize the economic possibilities of Asia Minor and the lands beyond:

On the south shore of the peninsula where the waters thunder down from the Taurus mountains there is a project now under execution to produce annually through regulation and distribution of the rivers millions of hundred-weights of cotton for German industry. Other hundreds of thousands will come from Aleppo which was the cotton-country of the antique world as the Mississippi region is of the present. In the Taurus and Antitaurus lie huge deposits of copper and other metals. In Assyria and the lower stream region there are oil springs that are perhaps richer than any hitherto known. And Babylon will be the great agricultural oasis of the world after the old methods of regulating the waterways and streams have been restored, a ten-fold Cilicia, a two-fold Egypt. Upon the Sawad, the dark alluvial soil about Babylon, rested the strength of all Asiatic empires from the days of Assur.

There lies more for us than copper and oil, wheat and cotton. There lies a world waiting for us to awaken it from the sleep of a millennium, a world that will become with our aid within half a century three times as populated, ten times as rich as it is to-day, a world willing to reward immeasurably all work. No political conception suffices to form a practical idea of the staggering effect upon English world-dominion from the immediate threatening of Egypt. This war has taught us in many respects that reality produces more incredible things than can the boldest imagination. It is not at all impossible to crush England's power during the present war with Egypt as a basic point.

WHAT THE ALLIES CAN DO IN THE BALKANS—AN ITALIAN VIEW

THE urgent necessity for quick and decisive action in the Balkans is the theme of a timely article in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). The writer fully realizes that no really effective measures are possible unless the Allies can be brought to work more in unison than they now do, following in this the striking example set by the Central Powers. It is universally recognized that many mistakes have been made by the Allies in the Balkans, both in military and naval operations and in diplomacy, but these errors can still be made good if the proper course

is at last pursued, always bearing in mind, however, that a display of force is more respected in these regions than any proclamation of rights.

The writer advocates energetic use of the powerful fleet of the Allies against such of the coast cities as are exposed to attack, and he recommends the levying of contributions upon them, believing that what Germany has done in Belgium by means of her army, can and should be done by the Allies with their navies. Above all, however, he insists upon the absolute need of liberal subsidies

and loans to the Balkan States. He evidently believes that "money talks." The reasons for this he gives as follows:

The Balkan nations are young and therefore poor, and it was above all on this side that they could be approached and could be induced to participate in the war. In the pamphlet that the Bulgarian Government is distributing in Europe, it is clearly stated that the economic and financial interests of Bulgaria require her to stand with the Central Powers, which not only represent a wide commercial movement, but have accorded the considerable loan not agreed to by Italy. And the pro-German press of Athens continually reiterates that with the Central Powers are money and wealth.

When Greece ordered the mobilization from which we expected so much, the Entente accorded a loan of \$6,000,000. What is this in a war that consumes such immense sums? An offer of a hundred millions,—not a loan,—would have exerted a very different influence.

For months Europe has rung with the complaints of the Rumanian farmers that they could neither export their crops nor obtain credit from the local banks. Why was it not possible for the Allies to finance the Rumanian banks, and thus create a network of favorable influences which would have reached even into the remotest rural districts?

As at present the disposable forces of the Allies appear to be insufficient for the task of checking their enemies' progress in the Balkans, in the opinion of this writer the enforcement of conscription by England would prove of great eventual importance, provided, however, the requisite steps were immediately taken.

He would even welcome the transfer of a large body of Japanese troops—perhaps a million—to be evenly divided between the

French field of operations and the Balkan Peninsula. Here again he notes the danger of delay. If Japan's aid is ever to be sought, it should be sought now, since to ask for it later on, when the situation had grown worse, would most probably be to court a refusal.

The only successful appeal to Greece and Rumania will be an appeal to their own interests, and this fact must be clearly and definitely understood. The writer expresses his idea on this subject in these words:

Finally, such a diplomatic and economic situation must be created, that the Balkan states will feel they have every advantage in intervening on the side of the Allies, and every disadvantage in remaining neutral. Now that Bulgaria has perpetrated "the blackest treachery history records," she is undeserving of any pity. With a share of Bulgarian and Turkish territory, Greece, Serbia, and Rumania can be contented, the last named could even have a port on the Egean. The example of Germany, ready to cede Greek territory to Bulgaria, shows that in the Balkan Peninsula sentimental considerations of race, tongue, and nationality have little value. Here the strong preys on the weak.

It would be sheer simplicity on the part of the Allies to believe that Greece and Rumania will enter the arena in their favor actuated by ideal or sentimental motives. Without ample territorial compensations and without provision for the necessary expenses, these nations will make no move; and indeed from their viewpoint they probably think themselves in the right. Apart from the inevitable horrors of war, why should any state load itself with debts and taxes to please the powers of the Entente? And, nevertheless, the diplomats of the Allies have for the past year clung to this strange delusion, and have therefore been led into the errors and mistakes which the press is to-day unanimous in condemning, perhaps rather too harshly.

THE MAN WHO RAISED CANADA'S ARMY

THE loyalty of the Dominion of Canada in the present war is second to none among the colonies of Britain; and her substantial contribution to England's fighting line in Europe has proved a considerable factor in the Allies' strength. The Canadians showed their mettle at Ypres, Neuve Chapelle, Langemarck, and elsewhere on the European battlefield. Canada has raised altogether 165,000 men, and a few weeks ago the Dominion Parliament decided to bring the full quota up to 250,000. This, for a young country, is "going strong." Especially difficult, of course, was the mobili-

zation of the first army of 30,000. This was not because of the lack of men and spirit, but because of the newness of the problem and the brief time set in which to achieve the task. But the result was splendid in its success.

That Canada, a non-military nation, with no previous experience in war preparation except military maneuvers, could collect, equip, train, and transport 30,000 men without one serious mishap, was due, according to Mr. Britton B. Cooke, who contributes an article to the *Canadian* magazine, to the genius of General Sam Hughes, "a one-time

Canadian country boy, private in the militia, school teacher, political worker,"—a man who "thrusts out his splendid jaw, draws down the corners of his tight, yet humorous mouth, sets his rather good and aggressive nose straight in the face of public disapproval and blazes away with as fine a pair of snapping, defiant, and intelligent Irish-Canadian eyes—grey-blue—as ever shamed the devil."

No other man, it is believed, could have done what General Hughes did in the time at his disposal. No other man could have secured the coöperation of his staff and the help of outsiders in such a successful way as he did. This man, with the qualities of a great executive, had spent many years as a quiet member of Parliament, never noted as a speech-maker or as a startling contributor to the sum total of ideas in the House of Commons. But:

the Colonel Hughes who in times of peace occupied himself with all the minutiae of military work, attending rifle matches and presiding at meetings of small-arms committees and so on, is not the same man you meet under that name to-day. He was a man out of place except when war—such as the South African War or the present titanic struggle—gave him an opportunity to serve. In South Africa his impetuous gallantry and daring was unbelievable. Now in the work of organizing the resources of the Dominion in the present struggle he has found his *métier*.

How he accomplished the feat of mobilizing Canada's army can be glimpsed in several incidents related by the writer of this article. For example there was the mechanical transport problem. Looking over the list of men experienced in the automobile business, he picked out a well-known expert, T. A. Rus-



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GENERAL SAM HUGHES, CANADIAN MINISTER OF MILITIA



SOLDIERS TRAINING AT WINNIPEG



CANADIAN RECRUITING POSTER

sell, a quiet, steady-going type of man, used to chopping off so much work in so much time.

Hughes handed Russell a piece of paper not much larger than the palm of one's hand, and covered with notes.

"There," he said, in his customary brusque voice, "that's a memorandum of what we'll need in the way of mechanical transport. I want that looked after and I want all the stuff ready by September 22nd.

"But, Colonel—" protested Russell (Hughes was then still Colonel Sam), "it's absolutely impossible. It can't be done."

Hughes looked up.

"What did I ask you to come to Ottawa for?" he snapped. "To tell me that?"

"But, Colonel Hughes, there are heavy trucks and light trucks, different kinds of bodies, different types of motors required, repair shops to go with each unit, spare parts—spare—"

"Never mind the list," retorted Hughes, "I wrote it out myself. I know what it says. What I want is the work done. It must be done by the twenty-second. That is all. Good morning."

It was the same with the question of railway transportation. The great new army had to be brought from all over Canada to the Valcartier mobilization ground. Hughes summoned the railway chiefs and told them what was required.

"How many men will we have to move?" asked one of the officials.

"Anything from twenty-five to fifty thousand."

"In how long?"

"Right away. Soon as they are ready to go."

"It can't be done."

"Oh, yes it can," said Hughes.

It was.

The tax on the Canadian Northern Railway was tremendous, for it was by this road, —after the Grand Trunk and the Canadian Pacific had collected the soldiers from all over Canada—that the men had finally to be carried from Montreal to Valcartier. The railway men worked as they had never worked before, building extra sidings and loops for the handling of the enormous traffic. Soldiers came pouring into the Valcartier training camp at the rate of ten train-loads a day.

And then followed the problem of caring for the soldiers after their arrival. Departmental chiefs, accustomed to ordinary routine work, were suddenly confronted with the tasks of draining, lighting, and equipping the great new camp.

If Hughes, when he told them the situation, had expressed so much as half a doubt that the thing was possible, they might have lost their nerve. The task was colossal. But Hughes treated his men as though they were colossi as well. He gave no sermons, expressed no doubts, refrained from interference. His orders were carried out.

As train after train dumped additional thousands of men on the plain at Valcartier, high officers shook their heads in despair and all but threw up their hands. It was impossible, they felt, to bring order out of such a situation. Men were arriving so fast they could never, never, handle them. But one man in the midst of the strain remained unperturbed. If anyone whispered "Impossible," his retort was, "Nothing is impossible. Do it."

Other men, says this writer, would have planned everything in detail; but Hughes had the perspective of a great undertaking, picking out the best man he could find for each piece of work, and inspiring them all by his own industry and determination to do their utmost.

There is no idling in the Department of Militia and Defense at Ottawa. The place hums with industry. General Hughes himself is there early and late; and though he has an enormous mail and is under great pressure, he looks into every complaint personally and insists that everyone with a grievance may write to him about it.

Personally, the General is not usually described as lovable; yet he is loyal to his friends and commands the affection of his

subordinates. To Hughes "every soldier is his boy." He has a fatherly feeling for his family of fighting men. He does not love war for itself; but for the qualities it brings out in men. His one regret seems to be that he cannot fight and administer at the same time.

His hold on his men is explained by his care of them. Once in South Africa, when sentries were being stabbed from behind, Hughes evolved a plan of connecting them by means of a piece of string, tied to the hands, so that when one man dropped, his fellow would be warned. Although this Canadian trick excited derision in some quarters, his men appreciated Hughes and were ready to follow him as they would few other men. Again in South Africa, while

out all night with a small scouting party, his men worn out and tired,

Hughes, whose bodily strength is a byword, whiled away the time telling his all but discouraged men bits of stories from Canada, and reciting to them odd pieces of poetry he had memorized. When the crew were ready to turn in, it was Hughes who took the hardest watch of the night and—because he knew he was in better condition than the others—he took two watches without telling anyone.

"Blunt, vigorous honesty, a tremendous heart, a 'twin-six' thinking engine,—these," says Mr. Cooke, "are the characteristics of the man who is responsible for the splendid organization of Canada's share in the fight of the world."

ENGLAND'S CITIZEN ARMY

IF Lord Kitchener should deem it necessary to call for recruits between the ages of forty and fifty, a million men, according to the *London Review of Reviews*, would respond. The foundation for this statement is in the fact that half that number is already in training in a voluntary citizens' organization, and the slightest encouragement would double their ranks. That the citizens of England have thus organized themselves into a potential second line of defense of about 500,000 men will doubtless be news to many of our readers.

The "V. T. C.," or Volunteer Training Corps, as the organization is called, is made up of men from every walk of life. It has units in every county. Membership in the corps requires considerable sacrifice of time, money, personal convenience, and business; but this sacrifice is willingly made, and each man undertakes to remain a member until the end of the war. The wearing of uniforms is not obligatory; but pride in their corps leads the men to furnish equipment at their own expense.

The government supplies nothing in the way of arms, ammunition, or clothing, nor any financial help (naturally it is occupied at present with financing the war and outfitting the men actually needed at the front). Nevertheless, official recognition has been given to the movement, with certain provisos. The War Office has ruled that only those men can be enrolled who are not eligible for service in the regular or territorial army, or who are unable for some genuine reason

to enlist. The use of accepted military ranks and titles or badges of rank is not allowed; uniforms are permitted to be worn as necessary for training, but must be distinguishable from those of the regular and territorial armies. No form of attestation, involving an oath, is permitted. Army recruiting officers may visit the Corps any time to recruit men found eligible for service whose presence in the Corps is not accounted for by some good and sufficient reason.

All this seemed rather grudging recognition to the members of the "V. T. C.," but it was sufficient to allow the organization to prosecute its purposes, which are:

1. To assist recruiting for the Regular and Territorial Army.
2. To encourage men not of age for service in the Regular Forces, or, if of age for service, who have a genuine reason for not joining the Regular Army, to form themselves into Volunteer Corps in order to learn, in their spare time, the elements of military drill, and rifle shooting.
3. To organize the various Volunteer Corps throughout the country into battalions and regiments, taking as the geographical basis of such organization the county area; to provide rules and regulations for such Volunteer Corps; to secure their military efficiency; to act as a connecting link between them and the War Office and to enforce such regulations as the War Office may issue.

The organization is said to have already rendered important service to the country, particularly in stimulating recruiting. Many of the members (those, of course, whose disability had been removed) have themselves joined the colors; in addition to which the

organization naturally does much toward inspiring others to enlist. The Volunteer Training Corps is also useful in working out problems of defense, based on their knowledge of their own particular locality. Information of this character will be of importance to any military force that may be obliged to operate in the neighborhood.

A voluntary body of this kind, with units scattered throughout the Kingdom, would be apt to suffer from confusion, without experienced advice. This problem is met by having a military adviser in the person of General Sir O'Moore Creagh, V.C., who gives suggestions to the local commandants. The various corps are linked up into regiments, the county being taken as the area of organization. Eminent titled gentlemen such as the Duke of Norfolk, the Duke of Devonshire, and others, act as presidents of their respective county committees.

The idea was born of "a letter to the *Times*" by Mr. Percy A. Harris, a former

member of the London County Council, and met with such wide and prompt response as to give immediate assurance of the success of the plan. In considering the patriotic and earnest spirit of these men, surrendering some of their "slipperd ease" and their scant leisure to the serious task of being a soldier, one is reminded in some degree of the many American citizens who at Plattsburg and Fort Sheridan during the past summer applied themselves with serious diligence to acquiring some military knowledge and experience.

In summing up the value of this volunteer military organization in England, the *London Review of Reviews* states:

The V. T. C. sets an example to every citizen; it provides the simplest means whereby every man above military age can place himself at the disposal of his country; and if the government are enabled to carry on the war without the imposition of some form of national service or conscription, it will be mainly due to the V. T. C.

A GREAT SEAPORT NEAR THE ARCTIC CIRCLE

ARCHANGEL, the Russian port on the White Sea, is by no means a new seaport. An English trading settlement was founded here in the sixteenth century, while in the seventeenth it was the only outlet by sea of the Russia (Muscovy) of that day. Peter the Great deliberately paralyzed its trade for the benefit of his new capital of St. Petersburg. The great war has now restored something like the situation of three centuries ago. The Baltic is no longer open to Russian traffic, and Archangel's only competitor is Vladivostok, at the other end of the Empire.

Mr. H. D. Baker, commercial attaché at Petrograd, describes in *Commerce Reports* (Washington: Government Printing Office) the impressive transformation that the exigencies arising from the war have wrought in this far northern seaport. Mr. Baker, by the way, is an official who deserves well of the American people for the wealth of important, timely, and interesting information that he has gleaned in foreign lands and laid before the readers of the unique newspaper published by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. The results of his travels in India and adjacent countries are memorable, and have recently been collected

and reissued in the Bureau's "Handbook of India."

He writes:

There has probably never been a more noteworthy expansion in the trade of any particular port in such a short time than has occurred at Archangel during the last year. Previous to the war the trade of this port was confined to comparatively small exports of timber, fish, furs, and other local products of northern Russia, and a relatively small return movement of goods required for local consumption. Now, however, Archangel is the only port of European Russia open for foreign business by direct sea communication, and, except Vladivostok, in eastern Siberia, it has no rival in the Russian Empire. From a comparatively unimportant port about a year ago, dependent chiefly upon its sawmills and fishing fleet for prosperity, it has suddenly become one of the most important ports in the world, rivaling even New York in the number and tonnage of ships arriving and departing between about May 1 and the close of ice-free navigation. At the time of my visit in August about 120 large steamers were in port, and about 300 had arrived since May. An immense number of boats and barges are also engaged in river and canal navigation, many of them carrying as much as 2,000 tons each; these have been diverted largely from the lower Volga River traffic.

The Dwina River at Archangel is one to three miles wide, with a depth of twenty to forty feet. The tide from the White Sea amounts to about three feet. At the various piers and landing



ARCHANGEL, ONE OF THE BUSIEST PORTS IN THE WORLD
(Note the soldiers with prisoners)

stages the depth of water is usually twenty-two feet or more at low tide. Archangel is an extremely long but narrow city, extending only a few blocks eastward from the river, but with its suburbs and outlying houses northward it extends about thirty miles, or almost to the White Sea. The main street is about six miles long. For a distance of nearly forty miles south and north of the river almost to the White Sea there is now considerable shipping. In front of the main part of the city there are about thirty-five large piers, as against only three or four a year ago. Over 100 large warehouses have been built within a year.

With its sixty to seventy miles of river frontage available for ships drawing up to twenty-three feet, Archangel would be one of the finest ports in the world but for one thing,—ice. The Dwina River is connected with a magnificent system of inland waterways, making it possible to ship freight from Archangel by water to nearly every important town of European Russia. The railway communications of this seaport are not satisfactory, but are being improved as rapidly as possible. Something is also being done to mitigate the difficulties due to ice.

The river begins freezing in October, but is expected to be kept open from Archangel out through the White Sea till December. It is the intention this coming winter to maintain the present fortnightly service by steamers by the Russian-American Line from Archangel to New York until the end of January. Two of the largest

ice breakers in the world are now at Archangel, the *Canada* and the *Lintrose*, and it is understood that several more large ice breakers are being constructed in England for use here during the coming winter. During the late part of the season, incoming ships may be allowed, as they were last year, to get frozen in, unloading their cargoes on the ice, which is later broken to release the ships.

Since, however, the ice problem cannot be wholly solved at Archangel, the development of a permanently ice-free port elsewhere on the Arctic seaboard is a desideratum.

It is understood that rapid progress is being made with the construction of a railway across the Murman Peninsula to Kola, in Lapland, lying at the head of an estuary (twenty-seven miles long) of the Arctic Ocean, and it is hoped that this railway will be completed next January or February, so that Kola may succeed Archangel for winter use. Between the end of January and May 1 it will doubtless be impossible to keep Archangel open even with powerful ice breakers. Around this part of the Arctic Ocean the Gulf Stream finally dissipates itself, creating sufficient warmth to prevent the formation of any formidable ice . . . the Kola route is not expected to take the place of Archangel, except when the latter port is frozen up. In the summer time Kem and Soroka, as soon as they have railway facilities, may assist in relieving any congestion at Archangel. . . .

Archangel, owing to its sudden "boom," presents some of the aspects of towns in the western part of the United States, where sudden excitement has resulted from the discovery of valuable

minerals. A great number of houses, sheds, shops, etc., have suddenly been erected to accommodate the overwhelming rush of business, and especially to cater to the wants of the large number of ships and sailors now in the harbor. A tramway is being constructed along the main street of the town, and the local government is shortly to complete an electric light and power plant, which will not only furnish power for the street railway but also light the city. The present governor of Archangel is said to be extremely progressive and active in bringing about improvements in the city, and it has been due largely to his efforts that the tremendous congestion of freight at Archangel last spring has been so greatly relieved.

The city has a healthy, bracing climate all the year, but it is very cold in winter. From the standpoint of tourists, probably the most interesting feature of Archangel is the attractive fur shops, where all kinds of northern furs can be bought and where the great specialty is polar-bear skins from Nova Zembla and other near-by regions of the Arctic Ocean. The city has a population of 35,000 to 40,000. There is hotel accommodation for visitors, but it cannot be called excellent.

American cotton figures prominently

among the imports at Archangel, and it has suffered more or less damage from the weather while awaiting transshipment to the interior. Wheat is a leading article of export.

Apparently much of the wheat formerly exported from Black Sea or Baltic ports is now shipped from here. In August it was said that about 1,000,000 poods (18,000 short tons) were lying in port, while 15,000,000 or 20,000,000 poods (270,000 to 360,000 short tons) had been shipped since May. A curious feature in connection with the shipping at Archangel has been that comparatively small and unimportant cargoes have arrived from England, but extremely important and full cargoes, including especially eggs, butter, and flax, go to England, while ships from the United States arrive with full cargoes, but return practically in ballast, because most articles that Russia ordinarily exports to the United States are now embargoed from exportation except to allied nations.

Although several nations have consulates at Archangel, our country is not represented there even by a consular agent. Why?

THE WORLD-WAR AGAINST ALCOHOL

THIS magazine has frequently found opportunity to record the advance of prohibition movements in our own country and abroad. It seems fitting, therefore, to set forth at this time portions of two noteworthy articles on the subject which come to hand at almost the same moment. One is a summary of the situation in Europe, by Mr. Henry Carter, published in the *English Review of Reviews* (London), while the other is an exhaustive review of legislative action in the United States, by Mr. John Koren, published in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

First we quote from the English writer, regarding conditions in Europe. Speaking broadly, he believes that:

Thrift, efficiency, and the claims of national conscience are the factors compelling change. Food must be conserved; hence the use of grain and potatoes in brewing and distilling is checked. Soldiers and civilians must give their best in services; therefore drink, which depletes strength and blunts the edge of skill, comes under the ban of the state. As the tide of sorrow rises, as the sense of peril deepens, there wakens among the peoples a common protest against the carnal lust of intemperance; this moral factor impels and sustains the war of the governments against their "internal enemy."

BRITAIN, RUSSIA, FRANCE, ITALY

In evident apology for the comparative inaction of Great Britain, Mr. Carter avers

that "the end of the war-time anti-liquor campaign in Britain is not yet. We may see a near approach to prohibition on the national scale before many months are past." He then makes note of restrictive orders and legislation in Australia and Canada, where early closing hours for saloons are a feature. In Saskatchewan province the saloon has been abolished, and liquor is sold only in sealed packages at state "dispensaries." In Alberta province complete prohibition was recently adopted by popular vote.

In the case of Britain's allies, there is considerable to write about:

The story of Russia's emancipation from vodka has been told again and again. With a great price she bought her freedom, and Russian sobriety has gone far to sustain the nation and maintain the morale of her armies in the defeats which the shortage of munitions brought upon her. The prohibition of vodka has been rigidly maintained. . . . The enormous advances in savings-bank deposits, as a result of the new temperance of the people, and the gains to social order, are a notable vindication of the argument that to depose strong drink is to en throne public welfare.

France has suppressed absinthe with a strong hand. Prohibition is no mere letter of the law. Stocks of the absinthe weed are seized and burned. A case tried in Hérault in July is significant: a distiller, proved guilty of manufacturing absinthe, was severely fined, charged quintuple excise duties, and his stock, valued

at \$10,000, confiscated; his total loss through law-breaking was estimated at \$46,000.

Italy, like France, has prohibited absinthe. No alcoholic liquor may now be sold to any young person under sixteen. In the Italian army the same tendency is seen as in the armies of other combatant nations: spirits are prohibited; the wine-ration is reduced; in "first-aid" outfits a bottle of syrup of coffee has replaced the bottle of brandy.

GERMANY, AUSTRIA, TURKEY

Exactly what is happening in the Teutonic empires and the domain of their Turkish ally is not known. But the main facts are clear.

The German genius for organization has grappled with the waste through liquor. . . . To preserve barley for bread, the quantity of beer which can be brewed throughout the empire is limited to 40 per cent. of the average output; local authorities were given power last March to limit or prohibit the sale of spirits; and in certain areas spirits must not be sold to soldiers in uniform.

Austria prohibited the malting of corn, cut down the week-day hours for the sale of drink to those between 9 A. M. and 5 P. M. and imposed Sunday closing on all shops where liquor only is sold.

Turkey, as a Mohammedan nation, ought to be free from intemperance. The strict rule of total abstinence from liquors has broken down in face of Western seductions. Hence the point of an Irade of the Sultan issued two months ago, making public drunkenness "a crime subject to trial and condemnation by court-martial."

Mr. Carter finds that recent restrictions of traffic in liquors are not confined to the countries at war, and he mentions regulations adopted in Switzerland, Denmark, and Sweden.

THE TEMPERANCE MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

The spread of prohibitory legislation in the United States has been so rapid, during the past thirteen months, that many people have failed to note the vastness of the results, while others have lost sight of the relation of recent events to the movement as a whole. In that short period the saloon has been entirely abolished in nine States.

Few men are better qualified than Mr. John Koren to write about prohibition in this country; and from his article in the *Atlantic Monthly* we summarize the following review of the growth of the movement. It will be understood that the statements—and in large part the words—are his.

Moral suasion was the sole reliance of the temperance reform in its earliest manifestations. . . . Then arouse a demand for force where

suasion appeared to fail, and the idea root took of compelling temperance by prohibiting the manufacture and sale of all intoxicants, which found its first full-fledged expression in the State of Maine about 1850.

In the succeeding forty years, sixteen other commonwealths embraced the prohibition faith, but only three of the seventeen have clung to it steadfastly—Maine, Kansas, and North Dakota.

During the prohibition campaigns of the earlier periods, as now, the anti-saloon feeling was the mainspring of the agitation. In this detached students of the history of the prohibition movement concur without dissent. The saloon as we know it is distinctly the offspring of rough pioneer conditions, and whether one looked to the large urban centers or the sparsely settled new States, it had become not merely a center of inebriety and affiliated vices, but reached corruptingly into political life.

One result of the search for some constructive remedy,—in view of the failure of prohibition as exemplified by repeals of the law,—was

the high-license law of Nebraska, enacted in 1881, which automatically reduced the number of licensed places and thus was expected to secure better control. This device was eagerly adopted by a certain class of reformers, and, variously expanded, for instance by the statutory limitations of the number of saloons and a host of minor restrictive measures, it has remained the foundation-stone of those laborious structures, the modern license laws.

Another, and more important, heritage was the status secured for the principle of local option,—the right of the community to license or veto the drink traffic.

In the decade subsequent to 1890 the waters of temperance reform remained comparatively unruffled. One notable departure from the routine of temperance propaganda was when South Carolina established its dispensary system, whereby the State assumed supreme control of drink-selling.

The South was now ready to lend a willing ear. Several circumstances combined to make it so. The saloons, purveyors of distilled spirits almost exclusively, had grown notoriously lawless; drunkenness was rampant, and behind all loomed the specter, partly imagined, partly real, of danger from the uncontrolled elements among the Negroes. The dominant religious forces of the South, peculiarly adapted as a vehicle for temperance propaganda, lent their full strength to the movement against the saloon. . . . In the space of a few years Oklahoma, Georgia, Alabama, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Mississippi outlawed the manufacture and sale of intoxicants. Alabama later recanted her faith for a time, but has again turned to prohibition.

The wash of the prohibition wave soon reached beyond the South. The most recent victories have been in Arkansas, Colorado, Oregon, Washington, Virginia, and West Virginia. [The adoption of Statewide prohibition in Arizona, Idaho, Iowa, and South Carolina seems to have escaped Mr. Koren's attention.]

Such is the history of the temperance movement in the United States. When it is asked what has been the actual gain for temperance from the ceaseless agitation, Mr. Koren finds the answer far from simple.

Over against the extravagant claims that more than half of the population of the United States has for several years experienced the

blessings of prohibition in some form, stand the irrefutable official figures of the production of alcoholic liquors. By successive stages the output of spirits, beer, and wine has risen, almost without a halt, and more than kept pace with the growth of population. . . . One undeniable inference must be drawn from the official statistics: the steady upward movement in the production of intoxicants could not have taken place during these years had both State and local prohibition been truly effective.

Even in the face of these statistics, Mr. Koren confidently asserts that there is a growing tendency toward personal moderation and practical abstinence, and that measurable progress has been made, during the past twenty or thirty years, toward sobriety and cleaner living.

ARMENIA AND THE ARMENIANS

THE word "Armenia" has almost ceased to be even a geographical expression. As Hester Donaldson Jenkins points out in the *National Geographic Magazine*, Armenia, to us Americans, means a vague territory, somewhere in Asia Minor. Roughly speaking, it is the tableland extending from the Caspian Sea nearly to the Mediterranean. Sovereignty over this area is now held by Russia, Turkey, and Persia. When Armenia itself was a kingdom it consisted of 500,000 square miles, extending from the Black

Sea and the Caucasus Mountains to Persia and Syria. This tableland reaches an elevation of 8000 feet above the sea, and then ascends abruptly to the peak of Mt. Ararat, 1000 feet higher than Mount Blanc.

This is a good grazing and farming country, so fertile that two melons are said to be a camel's load. It produces grapes, wheat, Indian corn, barley, oats, cotton, rice, tobacco, and sugar; all the vegetables that we know in America, and such fruits as quinces, apricots, nectarines, peaches, apples, pears,



From the *National Geographic Magazine*.

OUTLINE MAP SHOWING THE APPROXIMATE EXTENT OF ANCIENT ARMENIA (THE AREA INCLUDED WITHIN THE DOTTED LINE) AND THE COUNTRY WHERE THE ARMENIANS NOW LIVE

and plums. The country also has great mineral wealth which the Turkish Government has never permitted to be exploited.

Of the people who have lived for many generations on the Armenian tableland, this writer says:

Their appearance is definitely eastern; swarthy, heavy-haired, black-eyed, with aquiline features, they look more Oriental than Turk, Slav, or Greek. In general type they come closer to the Jews than to any other people, sharing with them the strongly marked features, prominent nose, and near-set eyes, as well as some gestures we think of as characteristically Jewish. The type is so pronounced that to those who are akin to them they seem often very handsome, while to westerners they seem a little too foreign-looking. Of course, the type is not always preserved; white skins, even an occasional rosy cheek, may be seen, and there is a small number of fair-haired and blue-eyed Armenians.

The resemblance to the Jews does not stop with physical features, for the fate of the two peoples has been sufficiently similar to bring out common traits. Like the Jew, the Armenian has been oppressed and persecuted, and has developed a strength of nationality, a love for his own people, and a persistence of type rarely seen



ARMENIANS TRAVELING BY BULLOCK CART

elsewhere. Like the Jew, he has learned to bend, not break, before the oppressor, and to succeed by artifice when opposed by force. How else had he survived? Like the Jew, he has developed strong business instincts, and like him he has a talent for languages, a power of concentration, and unusual artistic gifts. Both Jews and Armenians are very clever actors.

These resemblances, both physical and mental, have led scholars to question whether the Armenians may not be descended from the lost Ten Tribes of Israel; but philologists have concluded that the Armenian language is not Semitic but Aryan.

TREATING INFECTED WOUNDS WITH COLLOIDAL GOLD

AT a recent session of the French Academy of Sciences, there was presented a report upon the excellent results obtained by two French medical men, MM. Cunéo and Rolland, in the treatment of infected wounds by means of injections of colloidal gold. Observations of this new treatment were made upon a series of wounds in which infection persisted after surgical treatment.

Intravenous injections were made in some instances, and in this case from two to three cubic centimeters of the gold were injected. When intramuscular injection was deemed advisable larger amounts were used, even up to fifty cubic centimeters. Sometimes the gold was even injected in the peripheral zone of the infected region.

The method was found particularly useful where large traumatisms of the limbs were concerned with infections occasioned by anaerobic species of germs, especially septic

vibrions, etc. In cases of abdominal wounds the gold was injected as a preventive of infection.

These facts have inspired a writer in *La Nature* (Paris) to reflect upon the curious history of the employment of gold as a medicine for untold centuries in various parts of the world. Undoubtedly its first employment was mystical or magical. As the sun-god has been universally an object of worship and a fountain of myth among primitive peoples, it was natural to consider gold as possessing some of the healing attributes of the sun, just as it possesses the beauty, brilliance, color, and incorruptibility of the sun. Moreover, it is not subject to poisonous corrosion, like copper and brass, so that a wound made by it is apt to heal swiftly.

Our author observes:

Entirely unknown remedies are exceedingly rare, even when presented in the most apparently

modern guises. Of late years we have seen heliotherapy, *i. e.*, medication by the sun, take an important place in our therapeutics. The ancients practised it regularly, just as they systematically practised the gymnastics and the massage which our modern specialists prescribe under the general name of kinesitherapy, or therapeutics by movement.

Yet another example is chrysotherapy, or medication by gold. This, which has just received a triumphant resurrection, thanks to the employment of colloidal gold, was also practised by the ancients. Pliny says gold furnishes many remedies; thus: It is applied to wounded persons and to children, to diminish the power of spells of witchcraft. It acts as a bewitchment itself, especially to chicks and young lambs, when passed over their heads. In this case the remedy is to bathe the metal and afterward use the water to sprinkle those who are to be cured.

Used in other forms, Pliny declares gold will heal eruptions, fistulas, and hæmorrhoids, as well as dissipate purulent and fetid ulcers. Another writer, Pedacius Dioscoride, who lived at Anagarbe 36 B. C., also recommended gold as having the property of maintaining health and long life by the mere beauty of its color, and our author quotes him thus:

Gold taken by way of the mouth, whether consciously or unconsciously, never harms any one, as do many other metals; thus it stimulates

the heart and fortifies the vital spirits, all of which things are ascribed by philosophers to the influence of the sun. . . . Gold is put in medicaments prepared to expel the melancholic humors. Items to make a sovereign cautery it is well to use gold, for the wound it makes and the ulcer will ver. soon heal. Gold held in the mouth renders the breath good; gold filings brayed on a marble slab are good in medicaments to restore hair which has fallen out from scurf, and for eruptions taken by mouth and applied externally. When it has been so well pounded as not to be felt by the finger it is good to put in the eyes to clarify the vision. It is also drunk for affections of the heart.

The writer next refers to the well-known efforts of the alchemists of the middle ages to produce a potable gold, which was expected to prove an elixir of life. Paracelsus, in fact, claimed to have discovered it; however, he died while still under sixty. In the 18th and 19th century gold lost most of its fabulous repute as a medicine, with the exception of the much advertised and much ridiculed claims of the "Keeley gold cure," to which this writer does not even refer. But the value of colloidal gold as stated above seems to be indisputable, and Prof. Letulle recently declared before the French Academy of Medicine that he had obtained excellent results in typhoid fever from its use.

JUVENILE BOOK WEEK

SOME time ago the Boy Scouts of America became interested in raising the standard of books, and particularly stories, read by American boys. The Chief Scout Librarian, Mr. F. K. Mathiews, proposed last spring that a "Safety First Juvenile Book Week" be set apart just at the beginning of the holiday buying of children's books. Receiving the coöperation of the American Booksellers' Association and the American Library Association, Mr. Mathiews appointed the week, November 28—December 4, as a time when "booksellers should urge the public to shop early and buy the best books for their children and by window displays, newspaper advertisement, and circulars addressed to their best customers make it of interest to them to visit the stores at this time." The Boy Scout organization pledged its assistance and appeals were sent to librarians asking them to coöperate with the booksellers in an exhibit of the best books for children. Ministers were asked to preach upon "the iniquity of the modern thriller," and Women's Clubs, the Woman's Christian

Temperance Union, and other organizations were enlisted in the cause.

Seeing that one of the first needs would be a suggestive list of approved boys' books, Mr. Mathiews at once began the compilation of such a list. In this undertaking he did not attempt at the outset to learn the titles of the "best" books; but rather to ascertain which were the most popular, as evidenced by sales, and by library circulation. From the combined replies to his circular letters of inquiry (addressed to booksellers and children's librarians) a list of 1000 more or less permanent juvenile "best-sellers" was made up. Then, by successive eliminations, 300 titles were chosen, which were not only the books boys like best, but which were believed to be worthy of their liking. Boys will not have to be urged to read these books, for they are of their own choice. This finally selected list is printed as a special supplement to the *Publishers' Weekly* of October 23. The book trade is coöperating with the Boy Scout organization in distributing this list, and urging its adoption by parents and teachers.

THE NEW BOOKS

TIMES of great stress and tumult in the world must of necessity affect the writing of books and the painting of pictures, even as they affect the conduct of business and many aspects of life. Already it is clear that the great war is producing new kinds of poetry, as witness the remarkable volume of a New England poet, Lincoln Colcord, entitled "Vision of War," further notice of which we shall print next month. The struggle is also affecting both the subject-matter and the motive of the foremost writers of fiction. Undoubtedly in the field of literary art we shall have entered upon a new epoch dating from 1914.

But there is another sort of book, having less regard for literary form, that is related directly or indirectly to the war itself and to the international and historical problems and issues that have been brought forward by the profound controversies of the present period. In this general field there are books having to do with diplomacy and international relations. There are others having to do with government, democracy, and the foundations of states and empires. Others are concerned with the history, progress, and aspirations of particular races, nations, or peoples. Some of these are exceedingly argumentative and controversial. Others are purely for information.

We are this month making note of a good many volumes having to do with these current problems of politics, economics, and human society, in many aspects. For notes regarding a much larger number of such books of current interest, our readers are reminded that they have only to turn back to the previous pages of book notes as they have appeared month by month in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS during recent years.

Next month we shall give relatively larger attention to books of a more purely literary character. It is a time when more people than ever before are learning to think in broad terms, and are seeking a better acquaintance with the world of ideas. Writers find a more thoughtful and more awakened public. Readers, on the other hand, will not fail to find that there are many current books responding remarkably well to their demand for information or for intellectual stimulus.

INTERNATIONAL POLITICS

WE have had many estimates of the underlying causes of the great war, with attempts to apportion blame and praise while analyzing the complex rivalries of the European powers. Some of these have come from Germany, but a majority of them have been written from the standpoint of England and her allies. It is well to call attention to the analysis presented in a little book by Count Julius Andrassy, entitled by the American translator, Mr. Ernest J. Euphrat, "Whose Sin Is the World War?"¹ This is not a very good title, and Mr. Euphrat's English is not as clear and felicitous as it ought to be in view of the importance of Andrassy's work. But the book itself is a masterful essay by one of the foremost of Hungary's present-day statesmen, who represents also the views of his distinguished father. For, the present Count Andrassy is son of the great Austro-Hungarian Chancellor who, with Bismarck and Disraeli (Lord Beaconsfield), thwarted Russia in the Congress of Berlin, and did much to render inevitable the series of wars that have attended the gradual disintegration of the Turkish Empire. Andrassy

writes calmly, and is wholly free from a certain tone that gives offense in the arguments of many current German writers. He makes a review of recent European history that is entitled to the most careful reading and study. The Hungarian leaders always think for themselves, and are never overfond of the Germans. But their dread of the Russians is the key to their historical attitude. Andrassy has al-

ways admired England and France, and he advocates a re-alignment of the European powers, to check Russia.



COUNT JULIUS ANDRASSY
(Hungarian statesman)

¹Whose Sin Is the World War? By Count Julius Andrassy. New York: New Era Publishing House. 154 pp. 50 cents.

Japan's Imperial Ambitions

Mr. Jefferson Jones is the name of a young American newspaper man who was working on an English daily in Tokio and was allowed to accompany the Japanese army, so that he actually saw the fall of Tsing-tao,¹ about which he writes a very intelligent book. Mr. Jones admires Japan, but strongly opposes the subjection of China, which he regards as the deliberate and virtually accomplished Japanese program. He gives us striking pictures of the growth of Japanese imperial ambitions, and declares that any possible trouble between Japan and the United States will grow solely out of Japan's ambition to dominate the Pacific Ocean and to control the destinies of China. The book is an exceptionally clear, interesting, and logical exposition of its point of view.

Three Able Books by German Scholars

From the Dillingham house there have appeared several books, of moderate size and uniform binding, written from the standpoint of Germany by German writers of exceptional ability. These are of higher quality than some of the books that appeared a year or more ago. Professor Ferdinand Tönnies is a well-known scholar, of international acquaintance. His little volume is called "Warlike England, As Seen by Herself."² It is a review of the history of the creation of the British Empire, summarizing the writings of English historians and publicists, with numerous quotations. Professor Seeley's "Expansion of England" and the writings of Green, Lecky, James Mill, and various others, are drawn upon to show how aggressive England has been in the centuries from the time of Queen Elizabeth down to the Boer War.

Mr. Karl Federn, a well-known author who has given years of attention to French, English, and American literature and has written volumes in those fields of study, now presents a monograph on "The Origin of the War."³ His criticism is directed against the association of France and England with Russia. He sets the highest value upon English and French civilization, and the lowest upon that of Russia; and he has always labored to promote a Franco-German accord, in sympathy with England.

Another volume in this series is entitled "The Tragedy of Belgium."⁴ It utilizes the official material of the German Government in the effort to refute the charges of German atrocities against the Belgian people. Like all German books on the war, these three justify Germany's policy in the invasion of Belgium, on the ground that England and France were in secret alliance with the Belgian Government.

Belgian Neutrality Denied

Upon this point of the neutrality of Belgium, we have another book from the German standpoint, written by Dr. Alexander Fuehr.⁵ This

one is in the domain of international law; and it justifies Germany's action, on the ground that the treaty guaranteeing Belgium had been void for years, and that even if it had been in force international law would have justified Germany's action under the exceptional circumstances. It will be seen that the Germans now are justifying as legal what the German Chancellor at the time confessed to be illegal, but made necessary by military conditions. Dr. Fuehr's book, though not wholly convincing, is worth reading by students of international law and diplomacy, as are the other current books by German authors.

War and Economic Disaster

The present editor of the London *Economist* is Mr. F. W. Hirst, who supports not unworthily the great reputation of that journal created by Bagehot, Giffen, and their associates and successors. In his volume called "The Political Economy of War,"⁶ Mr. Hirst,—with calm logic and the measured statements of an authority in practical finance and a scholar in economic science,—answers questions that have been in the minds of many thoughtful Americans. He writes, in terms of history and comparison, about war debts. He analyzes the losses that come from war, and he does not minimize the misery and wretchedness, in the economic sense, that great wars inevitably produce. He devotes illuminating chapters to such subjects as the international trade in armaments and munitions; and shows without flinching what a dangerous conspiracy against the peace and happiness of mankind is involved in the inter-relationships of the immense corporations that make and sell the instruments of war. He shows how these concerns aggravate differences between countries, create war panics, and persuade one country after another to buy their materials in self-defense. This is a book that ought to be widely read by American bankers and business men, as well as by every member of Congress.

A Memorable French Forecast

A very notable tract, called "La Guerre qui vient," from the pen of Francis Delaisi, was published in Paris in 1911. It discussed a coming war in terms so remarkably prophetic that it has been thought worth while to translate it now into English and to publish the original French and the new English version on facing pages. The book as translated is called "The Inevitable War."⁷ Delaisi's object, four or five years ago, was to arouse the people of France to the danger of being forced into a position where they would fight England's battles for her on the plains of Belgium. Delaisi warned his fellow-Frenchmen against the plutocratic financiers, the international conspiracy of armament-makers, and the tremendous struggle for world-wide commercial power that the rival policies of England and Germany were rendering inevitable. He felt that France, unless awakened to her danger, was bound to become the victim of this great rivalry. He deplored the military and naval entente between France and England, and begged France to give up the spirit of revenge

¹ The Fall of Tsing-tao. By Jefferson Jones. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 215 pp., ill. \$1.75.

² Warlike England, As Seen by Herself. By Ferdinand Tönnies. Dillingham. 202 pp. \$1.

³ The Origin of the War. By Karl Federn. Dillingham. 207 pp. \$1.

⁴ The Tragedy of Belgium. By Richard Grasshoff. Dillingham. 243 pp. \$1.

⁵ The Neutrality of Belgium. By Alexander Fuehr. Funk & Wagnalls. 248 pp. \$1.50.

⁶ The Political Economy of War. By F. W. Hirst. Dutton & Co. 327 pp. \$2.

⁷ The Inevitable War. By Francis Delaisi. Small, Maynard & Co. 120 pp. \$1.

and avoid the disasters of a war with Germany. This book, like that of Mr. Hirst, on "The Political Economy of War," shows an insight not possessed by most of our current writers on the great struggle.

A Statistical Authority

In the preparation of the "Statesman's Year-Book"¹ for 1915 the editors explain that they encountered unusual difficulty because they could not obtain the usual official coöperation from countries with which England is now at war. Nevertheless, this famous manual is more invaluable than ever for its unequaled range of authentic information regarding the governments, finances, armies and navies, populations, trade conditions, and many other aspects of all the nations and territories of the earth. In this period of aroused interest in world affairs nothing could be more commendable, for the intelligent citizen or family, than the habit of frequent appeal to the Statesman's Year-Book for precise data regarding matters of a statistical sort.

America and British Sea Power

Professor Clapp, of New York University, in his book called "Economic Aspects of the War,"² deals in reality with the consequences, both to American trade and also to America's position as a neutral, of the British Orders in Council. Readers of this REVIEW will know that repeatedly for almost a year past we have pointed out the astonishing submission of our government at Washington to the violation by Great Britain of the rights of American trade. Precisely what our rights are,—as regards trade in non-contraband with Germany and unrestricted trade with neutrals,—is explained correctly and lucidly by Professor Clapp. What we have lost, from the standpoint of dollars and cents, and above all what we have sacrificed of national dignity, are set forth unanswerably in this book. There has never been a moment when, by the slightest hint, our Government could not have secured American rights *in toto*. Why it has not done so is a question that remains unanswered. Perhaps Professor Clapp can, through this bold challenge, obtain an intelligible reply from someone in authority.

America Should Accept British Orders

Mr. Ralph Norman Angell Lane is a well-known English newspaper man who has lived in the United States and especially in France. In 1909 he wrote a pamphlet called "Europe's Optical Illusion," taking the pen name of "Norman Angell." In 1911 he expanded that pamphlet into a book called "The Great Illusion," that was widely read. Both publications were duly noticed at the time in the pages of this REVIEW. Mr. Angell's logic was used to demonstrate the thesis that economic and commercial advantages could not be gained by military force; and he was commonly understood to hold the view that the much-dreaded European war could never come, because commercial and economic forces would prevent it. Mr. Angell's

new book, called "The World's Highway,"³ has to do with sea power, and its thesis is that the more completely England dominates the sea, and the more meekly neutrals like the United States yield to that domination and admit the superiority of belligerent rights over neutral rights, the more trade they are likely to have and the better off they are likely to be. It does not seem to us that Mr. Norman Angell is as good a student or thinker upon these subjects as Mr. Edwin J. Clapp, whose book on "The Economic Aspects of the War" is noticed above, and who traverses some of the same ground. It is the best American opinion that the high seas should be neutralized. Belligerents should be put at every possible disadvantage. All legitimate trade of all countries,—neutral and belligerent alike,—should have international guarantee and protection, in times of war and in times of peace.



MR. FRANCIS W. HIRST,
EDITOR OF THE LONDON
"ECONOMIST"

(Whose remarkable book on the economic results of war is noticed on the preceding page)

History of American Diplomacy

A general survey of American diplomatic relations and of our foreign problems and policies has been much desired. Professor Fish covers the subject of a century and a quarter of American foreign affairs with notable fairness and intelligence.⁴ Those who would study particular matters more thoroughly will find, in this volume, ample citation of authorities. The book is readable and expository, so that it gives the reader definite points of view as well as generally accurate historical statements. Its résumé of the last twenty years is convenient, but lacking at some points in a grasp of the real play of political forces. The book is to be commended in high terms.

Principles of Government and Law

Back of the question how states can live together in the world, recognizing neutral rights and obligations, lies the question of the nature of the individual state itself. Never was there a time in which the meaning of government, the relation of the citizen to the state, the nature of law, and the citizen as lawmaker and as the subject of law, were matters of so much recognized concern as they are just now. Dr. David Jayne Hill is not only a great authority upon the history of the relationships of states with one another, but knows how to clarify the principles underlying democratic government. His

¹ The Statesman's Year-Book. Edited by J. Scott Keltie. Macmillan. 1536 pp. \$3.50.

² Economic Aspects of the War. By Edwin J. Clapp. Yale University Press. 340 pp. \$1.40.

³ The World's Highway. By Norman Angell. George H. Doran Company. 361 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ American Diplomacy. By Carl Russell Fish. Holt. 541 pp. \$2.75.

little book, "The People's Government,"¹ is philosophical rather than descriptive, and it answers better these questions as to the nature of government and law than any similar book that can be found in so brief a compass.

Liberty.—Its Present Dangers

Professor Burgess several years ago retired from his post as dean of the faculty of political science in Columbia University. But he has not abandoned the position he holds in the United States as a leading thinker and writer in the field of government, and as a man of intellectual courage and original views. The present volume, entitled "The Reconciliation of Government with Liberty,"² is a profound essay, tracing the development of the idea and the fact of the state through many centuries of Asiatic, European, and American history. Professor Burgess believes in that balance between authority and freedom that protects the individual in the exercise of as much unrestrained liberty of action, thought, and speech as is consistent with social stability. He

sees in the tendency to increase the authority and functions of those holding public office a very real menace to the liberty that ought to be the most treasured possession of democracies. As an essay in political history the book is notable.

Democracy.—An Eloquent Exponent

A book that is full of inspiration and that deserves many readers in the United States is entitled "Democracy and the Nations";³ and its author is the well-known editor of the *Toronto Globe*, Dr. J. A. Macdonald. Doctor Macdonald is one of the foremost leaders of the growing nation that shares the North American continent with the United States. He is as welcome south of the line as anywhere north of it. He is for the growth of the North American idea of liberty, democracy, and peace. He holds up Washington and Lincoln as leaders of the modern movement for popular government. The present volume consists of various addresses and papers, so brought together as to make a cumulative impression.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS

IN some respects the most important of current contributions to biography is Mr. William Roscoe Thayer's life of the late John Hay,⁴ who was Secretary of State during parts of the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations. Mr. Hay was in

temperament a poet, and through most of his mature life he was a man of the most carefully guarded privacy. He was farthest removed from the acquaintanceships and activities of the typical "public man," it may be said, of anyone who has ever in American history attained in later life a position of so much official prominence.

Mr. Hay was an Illinois boy of marked talent (son of a country physician), who was at seventeen sent to Brown

University, at Providence, for a college education. He was "literary" to his finger tips, entranced with the culture that he found in Providence, R. I., and full of loathing for the crudeness of the Middle West. If he could but have gone to Oxford in his youth, he would have become one of the great ornaments of contemporary letters, a major poet rather than a minor one, and an essayist and historian of high rank. But he was too sensitive for American conditions; and circumstances of personal ease were not conducive to great literary productivity.

Through a boyhood acquaintance with John G. Nicolay, private secretary to President Lincoln, Mr. Hay, soon after leaving college at twenty-one, became an assistant secretary in the White House. This was a great experience for the quick-witted, imaginative youth. Soon after the war he was attached to the diplomatic service, and gained European experience. For a time he was a writer on the *New York Tribune*, where he knew Whitelaw Reid intimately. Subsequently, he was associated with Mr. Nicolay in preparing a biographical chronicle of the life of Abraham Lincoln, and in compiling Lincoln's writings and official papers.

Mr. Thayer is frank at many points beyond what would be thought discreet by the ordinary biographer; but in the long run truth is best and Mr. Thayer realizes it. When Mr. McKinley appointed John Hay as American Ambassador at London, most American public men and some of the best-informed newspaper men, knowing John Hay only by the "Pike County Ballads" of his youth, and not having heard of him in many years,—supposed him to be dead. Mr. Thayer, however, explains that John Hay, through circumstances of affluence, was one of the group of men called upon by Mark Hanna to make up the large sum of McKinley's private indebtedness, save him from bankruptcy, and promote his nomination by the Republicans. The reader is compelled to infer that private debts were paid with public offices.

Anyhow, Mr. Hay was in thoroughly congenial surroundings when he went to London, although perhaps no American ever so much dreaded hav-



JOHN HAY
(Poet and diplomat)

University, at Providence, for a college education. He was "literary" to his finger tips, entranced with the culture that he found in Providence, R. I., and full of loathing for the crude-

¹ The People's Government. By David Jayne Hill. D. Appleton & Co. 286 pp. \$1.25.

² The Reconciliation of Government with Liberty. By John W. Burgess. Scribners. 394 pp. \$2.50.

³ Democracy and the Nations. By J. A. Macdonald. George H. Doran Company. 244 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ The Life of John Hay. By William Roscoe Thayer. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 2 vols., — pp. \$5.

ing to speak in public occasionally. When McKinley brought him back from London and made him Secretary of State, Hay was in surroundings of just the opposite kind. He was not acquainted with Senators, much less with ordinary politicians. The fact that the Senate had to discuss and ratify treaties was violently distasteful to him. He was in ill health, and morbidly sensitive. His personality was so exquisitely refined, and his ideals were so elevated, that it took some time for the Senate to realize how limited was his grasp of some matters of fundamental importance in American policy. Mr. Thayer has the wisdom to go very lightly over this official part of the career of John Hay, and lets us see the real personality of the man in his letters and various relationships. Mr. Hay as a famous Secretary of State is not the theme of the present biography. But Mr. Hay,—John Milton Hay, as his name was until after he left college,—as a lover of poetry, a writer of high quality and distinction, and a personage of rare tastes, is well worthy of the labors of so accomplished a biographer as Mr. Thayer. And Mr. Hay's personality rather than his statesmanship is what Mr. Thayer has endeavored to set forth.

Mr. George Haven Putnam, in his "Memories of a Publisher: 1865-1915,"¹ gives us more chapters of his reminiscences. We have had occa-

sion to notice previous volumes based upon his earlier experiences. The present one is apropos of a great number of men with whom, as a prominent publisher, he had come into relations with in Europe and America. Mr. Putnam, early last year, was complimented by friends and associates upon his seventieth birthday. His work as a publisher, a writer, and a citizen of New York, active in many important movements, goes on with no abatement that can be discerned. This book contains kindly tributes to many people who had the benefit of the author's acquaintance.

Henry Codman Potter was much more than a bishop in the Episcopal Church; he was an eminent citizen of New York, of wide sympathies and noble personality. His father was Alonzo Potter, Bishop of Pennsylvania, and his mother was the daughter of the famous Dr. Nott, president of Union College. Dean Hodges, of the Harvard Episcopal Theological School, is the biographer of Bishop Potter,² and no one could have performed this service more acceptably. Not only was the subject of this volume a wise and broad-minded servant of an ecclesiastical organization, but he was a most human and sympathetic figure in the life of the metropolis, with an ever-growing sense of his mission towards the great public, and especially the so-called "working classes."

Further Reminiscence and Biography

In the Footsteps of Napoleon. By James Morgan. Macmillan. 524 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

Mr. Morgan's method in preparing this outline of famous scenes in the life of Napoleon was to study the places and countries with which that unique career was identified, beginning with Napoleon's birthplace and ending on the island of St. Helena.

Pleasures and Palaces. By Princess Lazarovich-Hrebelianovich. Century. 360 pp. Ill. \$3.

The author of this volume of memoirs was formerly Miss Eleanor Calhoun, of California, a grandniece of the South Carolina statesman, John C. Calhoun. Miss Calhoun had a successful career on the stage in England and France, chiefly in Shakesperian parts, and originated the custom of giving pastoral plays in the natural forest setting. Her recollections of English social life and of French artistic life in the latter years of the nineteenth century are vivacious and entertaining.

Old Boston Museum Days. By Kate Ryan. Little, Brown. 264 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

The Boston Museum broke all American traditions by maintaining a stock company and giving theatrical performances without interruption for a period of nearly half a century. Miss Ryan herself was one of the most popular members of the company from 1872 to the close of the Mu-

¹ *Memories of a Publisher: 1865-1915.* By George Haven Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 492 pp. \$2.

² *Henry Codman Potter.* By George Hodges. Macmillan. 386 pp., ill. \$3.50.



PRINCESS LAZAROVICH-HREBELIANOVICH
(Formerly Miss Eleanor Calhoun of California)

seum in 1893. Her book contains reminiscences of many noted actors and actresses who played annual engagements at the Museum with stock company support.

Vagrant Memories. By William Winter. Doran. 525 pp. Ill. \$3.

In this volume the honored dean of American dramatic critics continues the recollections of the stage so attractively set forth in "Other Days," which appeared seven years ago. "Vagrant Memories" harks back to William Warren, Laura Keane, Lester Wallack, Edwin Booth, Augustin Daly, and Henry Irving, and also comments on such moderns as Forbes-Robertson, Sothorn, and Julia Marlowe.

Davy Crockett. By William C. Sprague. Macmillan. 189 pp. Ill. 50 cents.

A condensed biography of the hero of the Alamo. We are assured by the author that the proof was read and approved by a grandson of the pioneer. In this career of a scant fifty years, ending in tragedy, was epitomized the early history of Texas.

Christopher Columbus. By Mildred Stapley. Macmillan. 240 pp. Ill. 50 cents.

The story of the discoverer revised in the light of modern research. The writer, while critical and discriminating in dealing with the traditions associated with her hero's career, is at the same time sympathetic.

The Heart of Lincoln. By Wayne Whipple. George W. Jacobs Co. 101 pp. Ill. 50 cents.

A series of anecdotes and reminiscences arranged in chronological order, with a connecting thread of narrative.

Baron D'Holbach. By Max Pearson Cushing. Paper. 108 pp.

A sketch of one of the leaders of French radicalism in the period preceding the Revolution.

The work was submitted as one of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Columbia University.

Camille Desmoulins. By Violet Methley. Dutton. 332 pp. Ill. \$5.

A well-written biography of the famous French revolutionist, the friend of Danton and Robespierre.

Robert Louis Stevenson. By Amy Cruse. Stokes. 190 pp. Ill. 75 cents.

An excellent, condensed biography of one of the most popular of latter-day writers in the English language. The chapters on Stevenson's life in America are of exceptional interest.

Court Life from Within. By H. R. H. Eulalia. Dodd, Mead. 266 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

The Infanta Eulalia is remembered in the United States as the official representative of Spain at the Chicago World's Fair of 1893. As a member of the Spanish royal family she had visited the courts of Europe for years before this journey to the United States. The present volume of recollections is distinguished for the frankness of its statements and the undisguised devotion of the writer to the principles of democracy. This daughter of the Houses of Bourbon and Hapsburg stands forth from these pages as a self-confessed convert to democratic principles.

Memories and Anecdotes. By Kate Sanborn. Putnam. 219 pp. Ill. \$1.75.

Miss Sanborn's recollections touch upon a great number of distinguished Americans of the last generation. To name only a few of these, there are the poet John G. Saxe, President Barnard of Columbia College, Henry Ward Beecher, Horace Greeley, Miss Edna Dean Procter, Dr. Edward Everett Hale, Grace Greenwood, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Julia Ward Howe, Mary E. Livermore, Walt Whitman; and Miss Sanborn has "memories" or "anecdotes," or both, to relate concerning each of these distinguished personalities and many others.

HISTORY

NORMANDY has had a continuous existence of more than a thousand years. Its people have conquered and been conquered; its rulers have ruled other lands and in turn have yielded to superior might; but from 911, when the Vikings landed on the northern coast of France, to 1915 the Norman strain in the current of European history has been distinctive. Even the Western Hemisphere has felt its influence; for it helped to colonize Canada, just as centuries before it had made England its own. A veritable mother of empires was Normandy and the Norman fighting to-day for the French tricolor against the Teutonic invader has for his ally the descendant of those very Norman dukes who in the eleventh and twelfth centuries laid the foundations of imperial Britain.

Historians have studied and written from time to time about the part played by the Normans in England and on the continent of Europe; but it

remained for an American scholar, Professor Charles H. Haskins, of Harvard University, to correlate this knowledge and to present in outline the Norman contribution to the statecraft and culture of Europe. This he does in his attractive book entitled "The Normans in European History."¹ This work, which has a literary charm that is rare in historical treatises, pictures the Norman of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries in relation to his times, as a founder of states.

The lasting influence of Norman institutions as seen in the law and government of England to this day is properly emphasized, and other achievements of that virile race in France and in the South of Italy are narrated in a few graphic chapters, the whole comprised in a volume of 250 pages. This is a brief treatment of

¹ The Normans in European History. By Charles H. Haskins. Houghton, Mifflin. 258 pp. \$2.

a big subject, but is very far from a cursory or superficial treatment. The author was prepared for his task by much travel and observation in Norman lands and by extended research in the archives of Europe. A trained, historical sense, like the intelligent reporter's "nose for news," gave him the power to select from the mass of detail the essential facts and to present them to the reader with due regard to proportion.

A "popular" treatise in the finest sense, "The Normans in European History" is based on the most painstaking and exacting research and is in every way creditable to American scholarship.

A rather sumptuous volume called "Gridiron Nights" is primarily a narrative and record of the remarkable dinners given during the past thirty years by a famous club of newspaper correspondents at Washington. It is, however, much more than a series of chatty reminiscences; it becomes a volume of contemporary political history, and preserves a collection of jests, witticisms, and current allusions, that will be of almost priceless value to the historian fifty or a hundred years hence. For it conveys the real flavor of politics in the period that brought to the front our McKinleys, Tom Reeds, Bryans, Tafts, Roosevelts, "Uncle Joe" Cannons, Fairbankses, and several hundred others. Never had king's jester greater license than the Gridiron Club has enjoyed with Presidents, Chief Justices, Senators, Governors, and notabilities at large. The cleverness and agreeableness of its programs have only been exceeded by their audacity. It has always been a wonder how the busy and very responsible members of the Gridiron Club could put so much exuberance, as well as wit and satire, into their two or three dinners a year. They have always struck high points in Presidential politics, and have caricatured every public man of the day



PRESIDENT WILSON

Th' applause of listening Senates to command
When Senates do not merely laud, but listen;
To have a certain party eat out of his hand
Are WOODROW'S triumphs, and are solely his'n.

Hail to the Chief, the Common People's friend!
May health and fortune's smile be ever thine;
May the whole nation's praise thy steps attend,
And 1916 bring a Valentine!

FROM A RECENT "GRIDIRON" PROGRAM

without malice and for his own best good. Mr. Arthur Wallace Dunn, who has written much for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS and is a veteran member of the Gridiron Club, has prepared this volume with a keen instinct for the relation of current politics to American history.

Other Historical Publications

Readings in American History. By David Saville Muzzey. Boston: Ginn. 594 pp. \$1.50.

Planned as a companion volume to Doctor Muzzey's "American History," this source-book draws freely on personal letters, diaries, and memoirs, as well as acts of Congress, judicial opinions, executive documents, official reports, and books of travel. The selections are admirable.

Source Problems in English History. By Albert Beebe White and Wallace Notestein. Harper. 413 pp. \$1.30.

A skilful grouping of historical sources for the threefold purpose of tracing the development of the English Government, the connection between English institutions and those of New England, and the continuity of English and American history.

High Lights of the French Revolution. By Hilaire Belloc. Century. 301 pp. Ill. \$3.

Of Hilaire Belloc's supremacy among contemporary writers on French history nothing need be

said. No writer in English stands higher. The present volume consists of a series of graphic, picturesque episodes, remarkable for fidelity to fact and the absence of bias or prejudice.

Evolution of the English Corn Market. By Norman Scott Brien Gras. Harvard University Press. 498 pp. \$2.50.

This study of the English corn (grain) trade from the twelfth to the eighteenth centuries is based on manuscript materials now utilized for the first time. It interprets the so-called corn laws of England from the viewpoint of the actual condition of the trade itself.

Economic History of England. By E. Lipson. Macmillan. 552 pp. \$2.50.

This volume, which is confined to the Middle Ages, makes use of much documentary material that has only lately been made available as a source.

The Irish Abroad. By Elliot O'Donnell. Dutton. 400 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A record of the achievements of great Irish-

¹ Gridiron Nights. By Arthur Wallace Dunn. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 371 pp. ill. \$5.

men the world over. There are also accounts of the various Irish brigades that have served in the United States, France, Spain, Austria, Italy, and Africa. Indeed, the history of the Irish has practically been made "abroad."

The Story of the American Merchant Marine. By John R. Spears. Macmillan. 340 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

An especially useful account of the rise and fall of our merchant shipping. It should be read by all Senators and members of Congress in connection with the renewed debate on the Shipping bill.

The Man of War. By Commander E. Hamilton Currey. Stokes. 297 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

British naval history told in an entertaining manner by a retired officer.

French Memories of Eighteenth-Century America. By Charles H. Sherrill. Scribner's. 335 pp. Ill. \$2.

American social customs of Revolutionary days as described by observant French visitors. Many highly interesting facts, all derived from writings of the period, are preserved in this attractive volume.

The Fighting Cheyennes. By George Bird Grinnell. Scribner's. 431 pp. \$3.50.

The story of an Indian tribe that was always famous for its warfare with other aborigines,

but was at peace with the whites until the middle of the last century. Almost everything that has been written about the American Indians has given the white man's viewpoint exclusively. The distinction of Mr. Grinnell's book is that it gives the Indian's own story, side by side with the white historian's, and permits the reader to draw his own conclusions.

Brissot de Warville. By Eloise Ellery. Houghton, Mifflin. 527 pp. \$1.75.

An important contribution to the Vassar semi-centennial series of books by the alumnae of the college is this study in the history of the French Revolution by Dr. Eloise Ellery of the Department of History. This volume would be noteworthy, if for no other reason, because it is the first life of Brissot, who held a place in the front rank of the Girondists and met death with the courage of his convictions in the fateful year, 1793. But the facts that Dr. Ellery has disclosed concerning Brissot's career as a journalist, philanthropist, and political agitator afford ample justification for such a work as this. One interesting episode in Brissot's life was his visit to the United States in the year before the outbreak of the French Revolution. His travels in this country are related in a book which was published in France a year or two before his death. The range of material drawn upon by Dr. Ellery makes her book much more than a biographical sketch of an individual; it is, in fact, a history of the times in which Brissot lived and moved. A bibliography of over fifty pages is appended.

Travel, Adventure, Description

The Lion Hunter. By Ronaleyn Gordon-Cumming. Outing Publishing Company. 378 pp. \$1.

An excellent selection of the best parts of the two-volume account already published of the famous African hunting adventures of Ronaleyn Gordon-Cumming. This noted English sportsman challenged the dangers of the chase in South Africa some seventy years ago. At that time the

beasts of prey still swarmed the plains in herds of thousands, and the flash of firearms had not yet become familiar to them. All the wide variety of African game crossed his path. The perils of pioneer hunting in this dangerous ground, when guns had not reached their modern state of perfection, add peculiar zest to these personal narratives.

Log of the Snark. By Charmian Kittredge London. Macmillan. 487 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

This "Log" is an accurate and continuous account, in diary form, of the adventurous voyage of the *Snark*. In this fifty-seven-foot vessel, it will be remembered, Mr. and Mrs. Jack London sailed from San Francisco in the spring of 1907, and touched at Hawaii, Samoa, and Marquesas, Fiji, the New Hebrides, Tynee, the Solomons, and many other islands in the South Seas. The long voyage was filled with interesting experiences, vivaciously recounted by Mrs. London, who kept the log, which is illustrated from photographs taken by the party.

Memories of India. By Sir Robert Baden-Powell, K.C.B. Philadelphia: David McKay. 363 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

The author of these "memories" is well known to Americans, not only for his reputation as an English soldier, but for his promotion of the Boy-Scout movement. His modesty leads him to attach little value to what he has set down. Nev-



MARQUESANS DANCING A TAHITIAN HULA TO HAWAIIAN MUSIC ON AN AMERICAN PHONOGRAPH
(From "Log of the Snark")

ertheless, the reader will find in this volume a collection of most interesting reminiscences of a British soldier's life in that land of romance and mystery, India. There are many delightful anecdotes in which appear well-known names like Lord Roberts, Winston Churchill, and General Smith-Dorrien—now active at the front.

Paris Reborn. By Herbert Adams Gibbons. Century. 395 pp. Ill. \$2.

Paris, always interesting to people all over the world, became even more so on the outbreak of the war. How the gay capital took the new order of things and adjusted itself,—the mobilization, business conditions, the visits of the German "Taubes," the official censorship, preparations for defense, and the new spirit of the people,—all these things and many more were set down day by day during the first five months of the war and collected by Dr. Gibbons in this readable volume. Full-page illustrations in tint, by Lester G. Hornby, accompany the text.

The Gypsy's Parson. By Rev. George Hall. Lippincott. 307 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

Here is a clergyman who has followed "the Romany patteran" and tells about his experiences with the English Gypsies. He has "companied with them on fell and common, racecourse and fairground, on the turfy wayside and in the city's heart." He has shared their hedgehog meals, slept in their tents, and listened to their yarns. Those who are interested in this peculiar people will find here first-hand information about them, and also some excellent pictures of Gypsy types.



GYPSY CHILDREN
(From "The Gypsy Parson")

The New Russia. By Alan Lethbridge. Dutton. 309 pp. Ill. \$5.

Mr. Lethbridge's book is based on a journey of some thousands of miles in northern Russia and Siberia. He started from the port of Archangel, proceeding by the Dwina River and the railroad to Omsk, and then up the Irtysh to Sempolatsinsk, returning by rail to Petrograd. This journey was made early in the summer of 1914, and the author had opportunity to witness mobilization activities in many of the cities. He was favorably impressed by the various Russian troops and officers that came under his observation, and his comments on the character of the people, their courtesy and good nature, are graphic and illu-

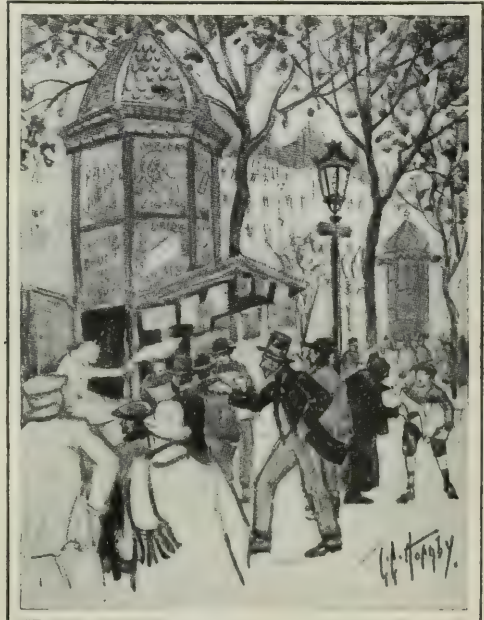


FROM "MEMORIES OF INDIA," BY SIR ROBERT
BADEN-POWELL

minating. The dominant impression Mr. Lethbridge seemed to derive from his travels was the vastness of Russia and the tremendous richness of her natural and industrial resources,—all inviting development. His up-to-date survey of one of the greatest of the warring countries is especially timely and interesting.

We Discover New England. By Louise C. Hale. Dodd, Mead. 314 pp. Ill. \$2.

This vivacious account of a tour of the New England States is especially suggestive to motorists who wish to see the Berkshires, the Green and the White Mountains on a single trip. The start was made from New York, the general course being northerly, skirting the Berkshires and the Green Mountains to Burlington, Vermont, thence east to Bethlehem and the White Mountains in New Hampshire, across Maine to

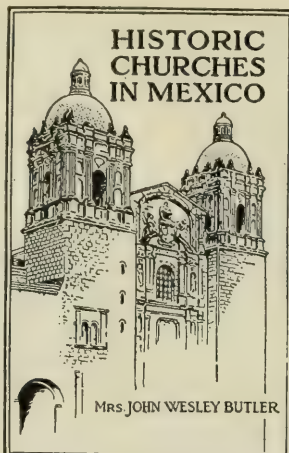


FROM "PARIS REBORN"

Portland, south along the coast to Boston, from which point the return to New York was made by way of Newport, New London, and New Haven, along the shore of Long Island Sound.

Storied Italy. By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. Dodd, Mead. 344 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

Mrs. Fraser has incorporated in this book a number of famous romances and fairy tales associated with Rome and other Italian towns. There are also several chapters from the biographies of distinguished personages and the author has inserted an account of the death of Pius X and the accession of Pope Benedict.



Historic Churches in Mexico. By Mrs. John Wesley Butler. Abington Press. 355 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Most readers of this book will doubtless be surprised not only by the number of church buildings in Mexico that are fairly entitled to be called "historic," but by the intrinsic interest of the historical facts that are grouped about these churches. Even in those instances where the line between history and legend is ill-defined, the interest is not lacking. Most of the Mexican churches owe their importance, as Mrs. Butler points out, to some special image, painting, or cross. Mrs. Butler writes from an experience of thirty-six years as a resident of Mexico.

Art and Music

Heart of Europe. By Ralph Adams Cram. Scribner's. 325 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A survey of the architectural monuments and the art treasures in those European countries that are directly affected by the great war. The opening chapter,—"A Sanctuary Laid Waste,"—refers to those Belgian and French towns that have already been despoiled by the invader.

Fountains of Papal Rome. By Mrs. Charles MacVeagh. Scribner's. 250 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

Hardly less famous for the number and variety of her public fountains than for her churches, is the Eternal City. This book describes the more remarkable of these works of art. There are fourteen full-page illustrations drawn and engraved on wood by Rudolph Ruzicka.

The Architecture of Colonial America. By Harold Donaldson Eberlein. Little, Brown. 289 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A well-ordered history and analysis of American colonial architecture, with a large number of illustrations from photographs by Mary H. Northend and others. The book distinguishes clearly between the Colonial and the American Georgian and brings out the various local variations.

Masterpieces of Painting. By Louise Rogers Jewett. Boston: Richard G. Badger. 160 pp. Ill. \$1.

In this little book the late Professor of Art at Mount Holyoke College, herself a trained artist, analyzes the problems of painting and considers the great masters in relation to their times. The treatment is both scholarly and appreciative.

Early American Craftsmen. By Walter A. Dyer. Century. 382 pp. Ill. \$2.40.

In this volume Mr. Dyer pictures a group of

men of whom little has been known to the present generation, although their creations have been sought by fanciers of "antiques." Architecture, carving, glass-making, pottery, and other crafts are represented.

Pottery. By George J. Cox. Macmillan. 200 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

A convenient manual for artists, craftsmen, and teachers, illustrated by the author. An historical summary serves as an introduction.

Modern Painting. By Willard Huntington Wright. Lane. 352 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

The last word (in English) on the tendencies and relative importance of the various art schools and movements in Europe from the early decades of the nineteenth century down to the outbreak of the great war.

The Barbizon Painters. By Arthur Hoeber. Stokes. 296 pp. Ill. \$1.75.

Discriminating comments on the work of Millet, Rousseau, Diaz, Dupré, Daubigny, Corot, Troyon, and Jacques, sometimes known as the Men of the Thirties,—the Barbizon School.

The Art Treasures of Great Britain. By C. H. Collins Baker. Dutton. Ill. \$5.

Photogravure reproductions of famous pictures in the public and private galleries of Great Britain, with descriptive text.

Piano Mastery. By Harriette Brower. Stokes. 299 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A series of suggestive "talks" with master pianists and teachers, including Paderewski, von Bülow, and, among American artists, Dr. Mason and Dr. Sherwood. Miss Brower, herself a musician, summarizes these teachings.

Books Describing the War

A Hilltop on the Marne. By Mildred Aldrich. Houghton, Mifflin. 186 pp. ill. \$1.25.

Quite by chance an American woman, Miss Mildred Aldrich, found herself in the very center of the battlefield of the Marne in the eventful September days of 1914. She had lived for many years in Paris, but in June, 1914, bought a cottage in the Marne valley and two months later the final British artillery stand of the battle that checked the German advance on Paris was made just behind her cottage. The advance of the Germans was definitely turned back at her very gates. Her letters, written from day-to-day to friends in this country, make up this little book; and this simple unpretentious narrative gives a sense of reality that is often lacking in formal military reports.

Young Hilda at the Wars. By Arthur Gleason. Stokes. 213 pp. ill. \$1.

Mr. and Mrs. Gleason were engaged for many weeks in ambulance work in Belgium, much of the time under heavy fire. This little sketch is one of the fruits of that experience. The book is really more than a story; based as it is on the stern realities of the war, it becomes a contribution to history.

My Year of the Great War. By Frederick Palmer. Dodd, Mead. 464 pp. \$1.50.

More than a year ago we had occasion in these pages to notice Mr. Frederick Palmer's story, "The Last Shot." This book appeared only a few months before the great war began, and attempted to tell what a modern conflict between two great land powers in Europe might be like. It did forecast very accurately the part which artillery would play in such a war, and suggested the trenching of great masses of troops along a national frontier. Since then Mr. Palmer has had opportunities to see the actual working out of what had been only mental conceptions of modern warfare. He was the only American correspondent permitted by Lord



AN AMERICAN WOMAN'S HOME WITHIN THE
BATTLE ZONE OF THE MARNE VALLEY
(From "A Hilltop on the Marne," by Mildred Aldrich)

Kitchener to go to British headquarters in France and for a long time, indeed, he was the only American correspondent who had permission to visit the British lines. This new book, "My Year of the Great War," tells something of what he has seen of the war on both land and sea. He saw the Battle of the Marne, and visited the British Fleet, and his experience as a correspondent in earlier wars gave him the best of equipment for intelligent observation.

The Log of a Noncombatant. By Horace Green. Houghton, Mifflin. 167 pp. ill. \$1.25.

The author of this book is a staff correspondent of the New York *Evening Post* who saw the bombardment and the surrender of Antwerp and other episodes of the war in Belgium.

France at War. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday, Page. 130 pp. 50 cents.

This booklet is made up of Mr. Kipling's observations on the way in which France has faced her crisis, prefaced by his own poem first published in 1913.

Economics: Sociology

The Prevention and Control of Monopolies. By W. Jethro Brown. Dutton. 198 pp. \$2.25.

An English argument largely concerned with conditions in Australia and other parts of the British Empire. The work was completed just prior to the outbreak of the war.

Politics and Crowd-Morality. By Arthur Christensen. Dutton. 270 pp. \$2.50.

Essays by an eminent Danish publicist who foresees the breakdown of the Parliamentary system throughout the world owing to changed conditions among the civilized democracies.

Life Insurance. By Solomon S. Huebner. Appletons. 468 pp. \$2.

A textbook prepared by the Professor of Insu-

rance and Commerce, Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania.

National Defense. White Plains, N. Y.: H. W. Wilson Company. 243 pp. \$1.

A new volume in the *Debaters' Hand-Book Series* containing selections from up-to-date discussions of the subject.

Our National Defense: The Patriotism of Peace. By George H. Maxwell. Washington: Rural Settlements Association. 392 pp. \$1.25.

A discussion of the national defense problem from the viewpoint of the conservation of national resources. This is the fourth volume in the *Homerofters' Series*.

ARTISTIC BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG

AMONG the pictorial books of the season that make a special (though not an exclusive) appeal to young people, there are a few new editions of standard works that merit notice because of the exceptional quality of the illustrators' work. Arthur Rackham's pictures, for example, in black-and-white as well as in color, must contribute

mightily to the effect of Dickens' "Christmas Carol" on those who will read the tale in this attractive dress for the first time. A certain weirdness that has been often noted in Rackham's drawings

these stories is supposed to be War Eagle, a chief who takes on the character of a sort of Indian Uncle Remus. American children have never enjoyed a very extensive acquaintance with true Indian folklore. This book preserves characteristic legends that have been handed down for generations among the Blackfeet, Chippewa, and Cree tribes. So far as a white man can enter into the spirit of Indian myths, Mr. Russell has done so in his drawings, ten of which are in color.

Three new books of fairy stories,—"The Kingdom of the Winding Road,"⁵ by Cornelia Meigs; "Shoe and Stocking Stories,"⁶ by Elmor Mordaunt; and "Kisington Town,"⁷ by Abbie Farwell Brown, are illustrated, respectively, by Frances White, Harold Sichel, and Ruby Winckler. Boys and girls from six to twelve will find much entertainment in these volumes.

"Little Pierre and Big Peter,"⁸ by Ruth Ogden, recalls us from fairyland to the realm of the actual, or at least the possible. This is the tale of a warm friendship between the little son of an Alpine guide and a famous American surgeon. The scene is the mountain region around Mont Blanc. Illustrations in color are supplied by Marie L. Kirk.

"The Land of Delight,"⁹ by Josephine Scribner Bates, depicts child life on a pony farm and the half-tone illustrations show how

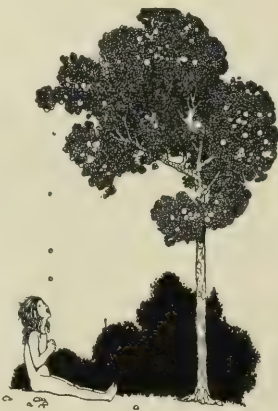


gives them a peculiar charm in association with such a story as the Dickens masterpiece.

At least two generations of children have enjoyed "Hans Brinker, or The Silver Skates,"² by Mary Mapes Dodge, but in 1915 the story has been illustrated in color for the first time. George Wharton Edwards, whose studies of Dutch subjects in water-color had already given him distinction in that field, was chosen to make the drawing and decorations. Old friends of Mrs. Dodge's classic will agree, we think, that his pictures faithfully interpret its spirit.

"The Water Babies,"³ by Charles Kingsley, has been illustrated times without number. It gives the picture-maker wide scope in the exploitation of all manner of whimsical conceits. An artist who has fairly reveled in this opportunity is W. Heath Robinson, whose individuality has full play in the new Houghton, Mifflin edition of that attractive fairy tale.

Of the juvenile books that are new in text as well as illustration we should place on the first shelf "Indian Why Stories,"⁴ by Frank B. Linderman, with pictures by Charles M. Russell, who is known as "the cowboy artist." The narrator of



"UNDER THE FLAPDOODLE TREES"

(Drawing by Heath Robinson for the new edition of Kingsley's "Water Babies")

many kinds of fun a group of children can have with Shetland ponies.

The season's picture-books for the nursery include: "When Christmas Comes Around,"—stories by Priscilla Underwood, with full-page pictures



COVER DESIGN OF THE NEW "HANS BRINKER," DRAWN BY GEORGE WHARTON EDWARDS

¹ A Christmas Carol. By Charles Dickens. Lippincott. 147 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² Hans Brinker, or The Silver Skates. By Mary Mapes Dodge. Scribners. 380 pp., ill. \$2.

³ The Water-Babies. By Charles Kingsley. Houghton, Mifflin. 319 pp., ill. \$2.

⁴ Indian Why Stories. By Frank B. Linderman. Scribners. 236 pp., ill. \$2.

⁵ The Kingdom of the Winding Road. By Cornelia Meigs. Macmillan. 238 pp., ill. \$1.25.

⁶ Shoe and Stocking Stories. By Elinor Mordaunt. Lane. 221 pp., ill. \$1.25.

⁷ Kisington Town. By Abbie Farwell Brown. Houghton, Mifflin. 213 pp., ill. \$1.25.

⁸ Little Pierre and Big Peter. By Ruth Ogden. Stokes. 367 pp., ill. \$1.35.

⁹ The Land of Delight. Josephine Scribner Bates. Houghton, Mifflin. 115 pp., ill. \$1.

in color by Jessie Willcox Smith (Duffield); several issues in the Pogany "Nursery Book Series,"—"Cinderella," "Little Mother Goose," "The Gingerbread Man," and "The Children of Japan,"—for which pictures in color and black-and-white are supplied by Willy Pogany (McBride); "The Scissors Book," by William Lud-

um (Putnams); and "The Dot Circus," by Clifford Leon Sherman (Houghton, Mifflin).

Two dainty booklets are "A Child's Stamp Book of Old Verses," by Jessie Willcox Smith (Duffield), and "When Hannah Var Eight Year Old," by Katherine Peabody Girling (Stokes).

NOTES ON CURRENT FICTION

MISS MARY JOHNSTON, who chose American scenes for all her earlier romances, has given "The Fortunes of Garin," her latest book,¹ a setting in Southern France of the twelfth century. Chivalry and the Crusades add a rich coloring to the background of the picture.

The last two novels by Eden Phillpotts have had to do with important British industries,— "Brunel's Tower" with the making of pottery, and "Old Delabole"² with the Cornish slate quarries. The latter story is a quiet, natural expression of life in a miners' village.

"God's Man,"³ by George Bronson Howard, is a realist's passionate protest against the modern craze for money power.

"The Star Rover"⁴ embodies Jack London's ingenuous development of the reincarnation idea, together with a grimly realistic picture of American prison life.

"These Twain"⁵ is Arnold Bennett's story of the married life of Edwin Clayhanger and Hilda Lessways,—a characteristic Bennett novel.

Herbert Quick, in "The Brown Mouse,"⁶ contrives to use a love story as a vehicle for the presentation of problems connected with the American country school.

In "The Bent Twig"⁷ Mrs. Dorothy Canfield Fisher portrays several American types, and in particular unfolds the life story of a typical American girl. The environment of a Middle Western State University forms the background against which the major part of the picture is etched, and all who recall the professorial career of the author's father, the late Dr. James H. Canfield, in the Universities of Kansas, Nebraska,

and Ohio, will have little hesitation in identifying certain passages in "Professor Marshall's" academic experiences. Chiefly, however, it is the influence of her mother's personality on Sylvia Marshall's character in its formative stage that "bends the twig" and furnishes the real motive of the tale. It is a thoroughly good motive and the product is a wholesome, entertaining book.

The delicate situation on our Mexican border furnished the chief episode of "Secret History,"⁸ by C. N. and A. M. Williamson. In this narrative Lady Peggy O'Malley reveals an intrigue engineered by an American army officer for the ruin of a subordinate because of rivalry for the hand of Lady Peggy's sister. In the latter chapters the scene changes to Europe at the outbreak of the great war, in which the hero takes a brilliant part as an aviator. The story is full of adventure.



Photograph by Walter Hale

ARNOLD BENNETT
AT THE FRENCH FRONT

Adventure, too, dominates Stewart Edward White's "The Gray Dawn,"⁹ a novel that harks back to the stirring times at San Francisco in the years immediately following the California gold rush of 1849. It is the period of the Vigilantes. Mr. White's characters considerably use the common speech of 1915 instead of that which is supposed to have passed current in 1852.

The art of the little book called "Eve Dorré"¹⁰ lies in its ease, simplicity, and seemingly unstudied naturalness.

It takes the form of a statement by an American girl of the experiences of childhood and youth and the crowning experience of happiness and adjustment. The scenes are laid principally in France. There is in the book a quality so elemental that the very lack of construction and of the methods of fiction-writing adds to the prospect that the result may have more than a transient standing. To give so uneventful a bit of autobiography the air of reality and the charm of the idyllic, is to accomplish something of unusual quality and merit.

¹ The Fortunes of Garin. By Mary Johnston. Houghton, Mifflin. 376 pp., ill. \$1.40.

² Old Delabole. By Eden Phillpotts. Macmillan. 428 pp. \$1.50.

³ God's Man. By George Bronson Howard. Bobbs, Merrill. 475 pp., ill. \$1.40.

⁴ Star Rover. By Jack London. Macmillan. 329 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁵ These Twain. By Arnold Bennett. Doran. \$1.50.

⁶ The Brown Mouse. By Herbert Quick. Bobbs, Merrill. \$1.25.

⁷ The Bent Twig. By Dorothy Canfield. Holt. 480 pp. \$1.35.

⁸ Secret History. By C. N. and A. M. Williamson. Doubleday. Page. 319 pp., ill. \$1.35.

⁹ The Gray Dawn. By Stewart Edward White. Doubleday. Page. Ill. \$1.35.

¹⁰ Eve Dorré. By Emily Viele Strother. Dutton & Co. 256 pp. \$1.35.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—DISTRIBUTING INVESTMENTS

THE English have a science of investment which they designate as the "Geographical Distribution of Securities." The popular interpretation of this title is, "Do not carry all your eggs in one basket." Having a greater supply of investable funds than any other nation and a commerce which needs to broaden constantly if it is to hold first rank, England makes a profession of her buying of securities, minimizing the risk to principal and interest and at the same time compelling a certain trade leverage over-seas from her investments.

As a result of this method the English capitalist cuts coupons from the bonds of states and corporations in all parts of the globe and draws dividends from enterprises separated by a month's journey from each other. Until now, when the proportions of the Great War are so immense that every little trading center in the world feels the effect of it, the Englishman could balance temporary losses in one section with profits or appreciation of values in another section. There might be a revolution in Brazil which would bring a repudiation of government loans which he held as a part of his investment portfolio. Coincidentally South Africa, India, Australia, or China might be booming. There are listed on the Royal Exchange of London some thousands of different issues of colonial, provincial, county, state, city, and corporation bonds and stocks, and in running these over one gains a knowledge of geography and of national resources which one could not obtain except at long studies over atlases and year-books. The British investor, who a generation ago placed the bulk of his "funds" in consols, which were selling at a yield of between $2\frac{1}{2}$ and $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., no longer represents the investing type; for consols have had about as sharp a decline since the Boer War as any worthy security. If one had placed all of one's capital in consols fifteen years ago the present depreciation shown would be over 50 per cent. This is the best illustration that could be given of the danger of concentrated investment.

We, of the United States, have so long been a nation of borrowers rather than of in-

vestors abroad that our investment sense has not been intensified like that of the Englishman or the Frenchman. We have bought certain securities and realized large profits and at other times serious losses. The investment has mostly been confined to domestic issues. It is quite as possible to have "Geographical Distribution of Securities" within a country as outside of it and to reduce the chances of loss by separating into many parts or units the sum of the principal to be invested.

Take, first, the matter of geographical distribution. There is always some one part of the United States that is more prosperous than any other part at a similar time. For instance, this year the New England States and the Middle West were overflowing with business and turning it away when trade in the South, Southwest, and Northwest was extremely dull. A year or two hence the same mills and factories that to-day are running at maximum capacity may be operated on part time and the cotton and wheat-growing States be showing a purchasing power never before known. Just now it is of much advantage for an investor to own the bonds or shares of the railroads penetrating these busy industrial sections or to have the securities of public-utility corporations which prosper from that increase of traffic and of power consumption which follows manufacturing development. The credit also of communities whose citizens are piling up wealth is raised and so the bonds of municipalities and counties become more select in such an era. Later the picture may be reversed and one would desire to have his funds where the wealth of the soil controls the local situation, making the farm mortgage of undisputed value and the earnings of carriers great enough to put a liberal margin of safety behind their bonds.

To have one's wealth properly invested in the United States one should spread it out over the six great sections, viz.: the industrial North; the cotton States east of the Mississippi; the Southwest, especially Texas, Oklahoma, and Arkansas; the corn States of Iowa, Illinois, and Nebraska; the rich spring-wheat belt of Minnesota and the Dakotas,

and the rapidly growing Pacific Coast section.

Having distributed one's investments so that they will balance in a geographical sense, the next step is to diversify or spread out the investment funds so as to include all classes of securities which rank first in their respective fields.

Let us say for illustration that John Smith has made a profit of \$10,000 in his business or profession, or, as is quite common these days, from a speculation in "war" stocks. Not a few men who have amassed sudden fortunes in the stock market this year and who realize how easily quickly-made money slips through one's hands, have placed a large proportion of their winnings in trust, in insurance annuities and other low income-yielding but principal-preserving agencies. These will return an average of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., some being $4\frac{1}{4}$ and others nearly 5 per cent. This is the surest way to protect the integrity of a fortune, whatever its dimensions.

On the other hand, it is better business for the individual who must depend on the income from his investments and who has force of character enough to stand by his securities and not hypothecate them against a further speculative venture which may eventually absorb his principal, to purchase mortgages on improved real estate, on farm land, on high-grade railroad and public utilities, as well as municipal, State, county, highway, street-improvement, drainage, and, under certain circumstances, irrigation bonds. He is also justified in employing a part of his funds in preferred railroad and industrial stocks with a long dividend record and a current large margin of surplus after payments.

Such a diversified investment to-day would make possible an income averaging 5 per cent. as a minimum and nearly $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. with absolute safety.

Our fund of \$10,000 under a scientific selection would show the safeguarding elements of geographical distribution and of diversity of enterprise bought into, if made up from some such list as follows:

	Yield
\$1000 First real-estate mortgage in Connecticut	5.50 per cent.
1000 First mortgage on Minnesota farm land.....	6.00 per cent.
1000 Municipal bond of an Ohio city of 10,000 population.....	4.50 per cent.
1000 First-mortgage bond of a Texas traction line.....	5.50 per cent.
1000 First-mortgage railroad bond of a Colorado line.....	5.25 per cent.
1000 First-mortgage bond of a California power company.....	5.50 per cent.
1000 Illinois district-drainage bond	6.00 per cent.
1000 Georgia district-irrigation bond	6.00 per cent.
1000 Industrial preferred stock of a Pittsburgh corporation.....	6.00 per cent.
1000 Railroad preferred stock of an eastern trunk line.....	5.25 per cent.

The average return on this investment would be a little more than $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. With the real-estate mortgages there would be no appreciation in the value of the principal and the same is true of the drainage and irrigation bonds. In the other six investments, however, made at the present time, there is a probability that within a year or two the marketable value of bonds and stocks would be considerably more than it is to-day, so that the entire fund, if liquidated, say in 1918, would realize a net return to the investor of well over 6 per cent.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 679. GERMAN WAR BONDS

Will you kindly give me your opinion of the Third German War Loan from both the investment and speculative point of view.

At this distance, and especially in view of the difficulties in the way of obtaining accurate and detailed information about the financial and economic conditions now prevailing in the German Empire, we do not think it possible for anyone to analyze with precision the status of the Imperial German Government bonds that are finding their way into our investment market. We feel that they will be paid eventually, but when one considers the tremendous war debt that Germany is piling up,—as represented by the three large internal loans, it is now in excess of six billions of dollars,—one cannot but wonder through how many refunding operations the various issues of

bonds may have to pass before the Government's obligation is definitely discharged.

If it is right to assume that these bonds will be paid, principal and interest, it follows that the terms on which they are now available in this market involve speculative possibilities. On the present basis of exchange a thousand-mark 5 per cent. bond may be purchased at a net cost of a little less than \$208,—a price representing a yield of approximately $7\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.

No. 680. IRON MOUNTAIN RIVER & GULF DIVISION FOURS—THEIR STATUS IN REORGANIZATION

I hold some St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern, River & Gulf division first-mortgage 4's, due 1933. Will they be affected by the Missouri Pacific receiver-ship?

According to the terms of the plan of voluntary

readjustment that was proposed for the Missouri Pacific and constituent companies, but which failed to be accepted by a sufficient number of security holders to make it possible to carry it into effect, the St. Louis, Iron Mountain, River & Gulf division 4's were to have been left undisturbed. It is our opinion, also, that in whatever plan of reorganization is adopted to take the Missouri Pacific out of the hands of the receivers the status of this issue of bonds will still be left unchanged.

No. 681. SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT FUNDAMENTALS FROM A BEGINNER.

I have a little money which has been accumulating in a savings bank and which I wish to invest. My absolute ignorance of affairs financial prevents me from going ahead on my own initiative. I have, therefore, decided to take advantage of your offer, and request you to answer the following questions:

What is the difference between a stock and a bond?

Which bears interest?

Which pays dividends?

Which is the safer?

I see Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific quoted at around 16. I imagine this means the stock which at par is \$100 is at present selling at \$16. If this is correct, suppose I should buy one hundred shares of the stock, paying for it \$1600 cash. If the stock should drop before an advance comes, am I out of pocket or can I simply hold until such time as I wish to sell? I read that the Rock Island is likely to be assessed. Just what does this mean?

We can perhaps best explain the fundamental distinction between a stock and a bond by pointing out that when you buy a bond, you become a creditor of the issuing corporation and that when you buy a share of stock you become merely a partner in the business.

Interest is paid on bonds on all forms of evidences of debt. When there are profits to distribute to the stockholders of a corporation, or the proprietors, the distribution is made in the form of dividends, commonly so called.

With this fundamental distinction in mind, it will doubtless be obvious to you yourself that so far as the nature of the instrument is concerned the bond must be safer than the share of stock. But there are a good many stocks which are safer than a good many bonds. In other words, it is always necessary to discriminate between specific issues of securities when it comes to investing money in them.

You have the right idea of the meaning of the quotation of 16 for Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific stock. It does mean that each share of the par value of \$100 is appraised in the market at only \$16. If you bought such stock as this outright, you would suffer under ordinary circumstances, only what might be called a "paper" loss in the case of a sudden drop in market price. That is, if you were not compelled by circumstances to sell while the stock was low. In the case of the Rock Island shares, there is, however, another way in which you might become subject to loss of capital, at least a temporary one. This road is now in the hands of receivers, and it is expected that when a plan is worked out for its reorganization, the plan will place upon the shoulders of the stockholders at least a large part of the burden of raising the new capital required. That is what is meant by the references you have seen to the likelihood of Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific being assessed.

No. 682. CONVERTIBLE BONDS IN SMALL DENOMINATIONS.

I have some money which I wish to invest in bonds of \$100 or \$500 denomination. I have recently been reading about the possibilities of certain convertibles and I would thank you to give me some information about this group of bonds. What do you think of American Agricultural Chemical, Convertible Debentures, due in 1924?

There are relatively few of the standard issues of convertible bonds available in small denominations. Of such bonds, we are inclined to regard the American Agricultural Chemical 5's about as attractive as any in the industrial list at the present level of prices. The value of the conversion privilege attaching to these bonds is not a matter of important consideration now. But with the company's improved business outlook and with the possibility that this may be more strongly reflected sooner or later, in the market price of the stock, it is of course reasonable to expect on the basis of past experience, that the bonds might show in sympathy some appreciation. We think there can be little question regarding the safety of the bonds as to both principal and interest.

Among the other convertible issues available in \$100 denomination, there are the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul 5's of 1914 and 4½'s of 1932, selling respectively to yield about 4.68 per cent. and 4.50 per cent, New York Central Convertible debenture 6's of 1948 selling to yield about 5.15 per cent, New York, New Haven & Hartford, convertible debenture 6's of 1948 and 3½'s of 1950 selling respectively to yield about 4.95 per cent. and 5.09 per cent., and American Telephone & Telegraph convertible 4½'s of 1933, selling to yield about 4 per cent.

No. 683. UTILITY BONDS AND SHORT-TERM NOTES.

I should like to ask you for some advice in regard to my investments. I now have in addition to a few shares each of Great Northern and Northern Pacific stock, city mortgages representing an investment of about \$6000, one public-utility bond and an investment of about \$4000 in municipal bonds. One of the latter has been called, and I have an additional thousand that will soon become available for investment. I want safety of course. What would you suggest?

We think it might be a very good idea for you to add another public-utility bond to your list. And in view of prevailing conditions in the investment market as a whole we think we should be inclined in circumstances like these to recommend also something in the category of short-term notes.

From the very wide range of offerings of public-utility bonds, it is not an easy matter to make specific recommendations. We take it, however, that you have already established satisfactory banking connections, and if so it would be a simple matter, of course, for you to get quickly recommendations from that course.

The short-term note market is one from which it is somewhat easier to make definite selections. We might call your attention to issues like Brooklyn Rapid Transit 5's, due July 1, 1918, selling to yield about 4.95 per cent., Dominion of Canada's 5's, due August 1, 1917, selling to yield about 4.95 per cent., and Southern Railway 5's, due March 2, 1917, selling to yield about 5.10 per cent.

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